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**A STUDY OF DEMOGRAPHIC AND PSYCHOGRAPHIC
FACTORS ON PREFERENCE FOR TRAVEL ACTIVITIES
AMONG INTERNATIONAL AND LOCAL TOURISTS IN
TANZANIA**

BY

NASRA SHOKAT KARA

2016



DEDICATION

This thesis is lovingly dedicated to my late mother Mrs. Mgeni Kara for her financial, moral, encouragement, continual and unrelenting support. This thesis is dedicated to you my loving mom, your affection, love, and encouragement and prayers of day and night. The memory of my late mother may Allah grant her soul al-jannatul Firdausi Amen.

DECLARATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the University of Nottingham, Malaysia Campus a thesis entitled: **“A study of Demographic and Psychographic factors on preference for Travel Activities among International and Local Tourist in Tanzania”** in fulfilment of the requirements for degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business School at the Nottingham University Malaysia Campus.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BFI	Big Five Indicators
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FIPI	Five Item Personality Indicators
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
LMS	Leisure Motivation Scale
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis Of Variance
MIS	Modification Indexes
MLM	Maximum Likelihood Method
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
NFI	Normed Fit Index
PCFI	Parsimony Comparative Fit Index
PFM	Preference Formation Model
PNFI	Parsimony Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
TA	Travel Agents
TIPI	Ten Item Personality Indicators
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
TO	Travel Operators
TTB	Tanzania Tourist Board
UNCTAD	United Nation Conference on Trade and Development
UNWTO	United Nation World Tourism Organization
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WTO	World Tourism Organization

ABSTRACT

Tourism destination usually viewed as a combination of places that generates not just experience but offers a memorable destination experience to the tourists. The challenge for today's tourism destination agencies is for them to offer what is needed by travellers. Currently, the tourism sector in Tanzania is in stiff competition with countries such as Kenya and South Africa in attracting more tourists. For a country to stay ahead of the competition, it is imperative for tourism stakeholders to understand various means for attracting the tourists, including the preferences for travel activities. This study aimed at offering an integrated approach to understanding tourists' travel activities and assesses its relationship with travel motivation and personality traits. Responses from a total of 431 respondents aged 18 and above was obtained through convenience sampling and used in the analysis. The study identified visiting city attractions, islands and beaches as top three preferred travel activities by tourists and visiting casinos and nightclubs as the least preferred activities. Moreover, the study examined the differences in preference for travel activities among the domestic and international travel markets. It was found that the two markets significantly differ in terms of preferences for a beach, visiting city attractions, going to nightclubs, purchasing traditional clothes and jewellery, as well as camping. Additionally, the study also examined whether demographic factors such as marital status, family size and occupation have any significant effect on preference for travel activities. Of all demographic factors, only occupation was proven to have a significant influence on activities such as visiting beaches and islands and purchasing traditional clothes.

The study further tested the structural relationships between travel motivations, personality, destination image and travel activities using structural equation modelling. The main findings suggest that travel motivations and personality have an influence on preference for travel

activities. More specifically, sightseeing activities were positively influenced by social, intellectual and stimulus avoidance travel motivations while outdoor activities were positively influenced by mastery competency travel motivation. Apart from travel motivations, this study also found that that closed to new experience personality positively influenced shopping activities while neurotic personality influenced sightseeing negatively.

This study also examined the role of destination image in mediating the effect of travel motivation and personality in influencing travel activities. The overall finding indicated that there was only direct effect and that there was no mediation effect. Despite the fact that destination image did not mediate the former relationships it influenced sightseeing, shopping, and entertainment activities positively.

Keywords: Travel activities; Travel Motivation; Personality; Demographics; Structural Equation Modelling.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 Overview

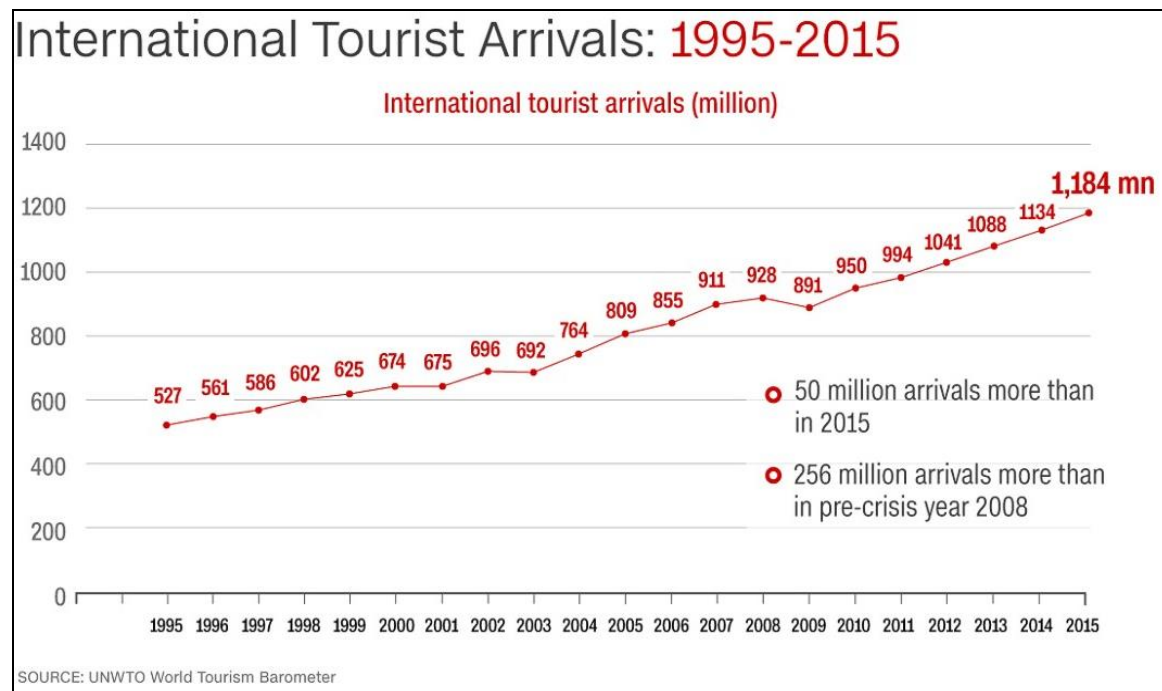
This chapter starts by highlighting the importance of tourism worldwide, followed by a broad picture of the tourism sector in the developing countries. It then narrows the discussion down to Tanzania. The chapter also identifies the research problem, research objectives, research questions and significance of the study. It moreover highlights the justification for the study area, and finally, it provides the structural details of this thesis.

1.2 Background Information

Tourism is one of the important industries in the world. The current data indicate that the sector was directly supporting over 284 million jobs in 2015 worldwide (WTTC, 2015). The total economic contribution from this sector grew to US\$ 7.8 trillion in 2015 from \$ 6.6 trillion in GDP (2012 prices), US\$ 760 billion in investment (2012 prices) and US\$ 1.2 trillion in exports (2012 prices) in 2012. In 2006, expectations were that the world economy will continue to outperform and that the travel and tourism sector will account for 3.6 % of the total GDP (WTTC, 2015).

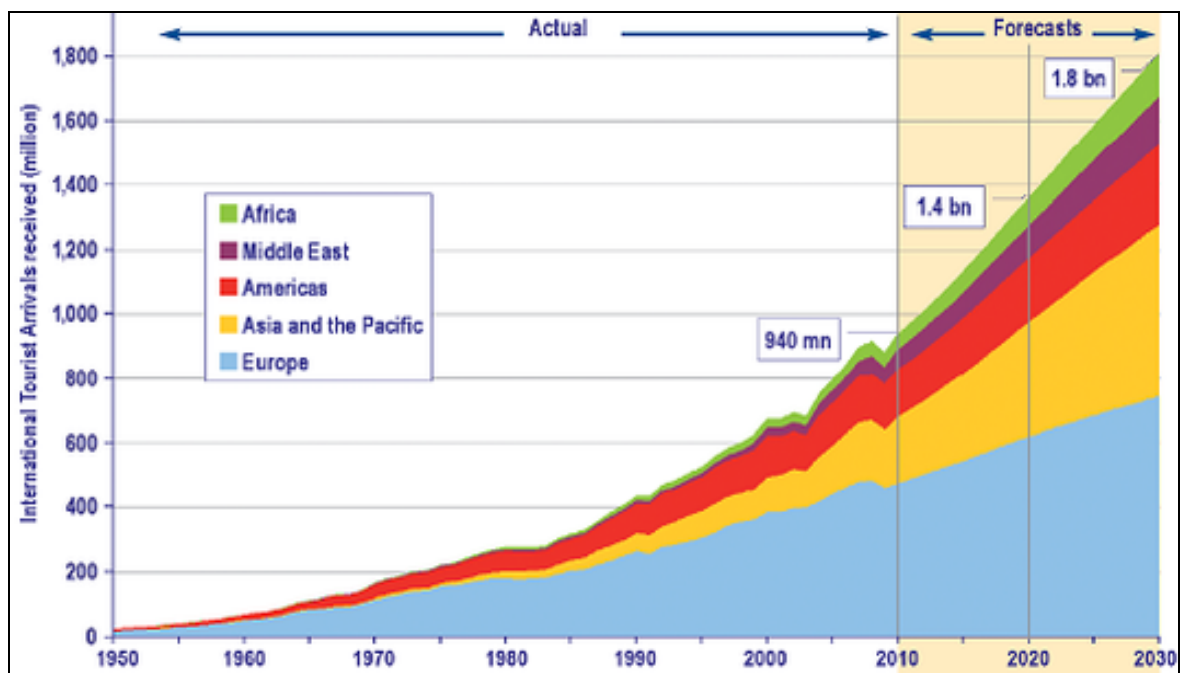
Over the last six decades, international tourism has been growing. The growth is justifiable from the statistics by UNWTO (2016) which shows that the number of international arrivals increased from 527 million in 1995 to 1,014 million in 2015. The current information indicates that international arrivals worldwide grew by 4.4% in 2015 to reach a total of 1,184 million (UNWTO, 2016), and it is expected that the number will rise to 1.8 billion in 2030 (UNWTO, 2012). Figure 1.1 and 1.2 highlights the summary of the world tourist arrivals from 1995 to 2015.

Figure 1.1 International Tourist Arrivals from 1995-2015



The current tourism data indicates that regionally international arrivals have been growing satisfactorily. For instance, Europe, America, Asia and the Pacific recorded a growth of 5%. In the Middle East, the arrivals increased to 3% while Africa experienced a decrease of 3%, this was due to the poor performance in North Africa which accounts for more than one-third of total arrivals in the region (UNWTO, 2016). Figure 1.2 presents the summary of the international tourist arrivals regional wise.

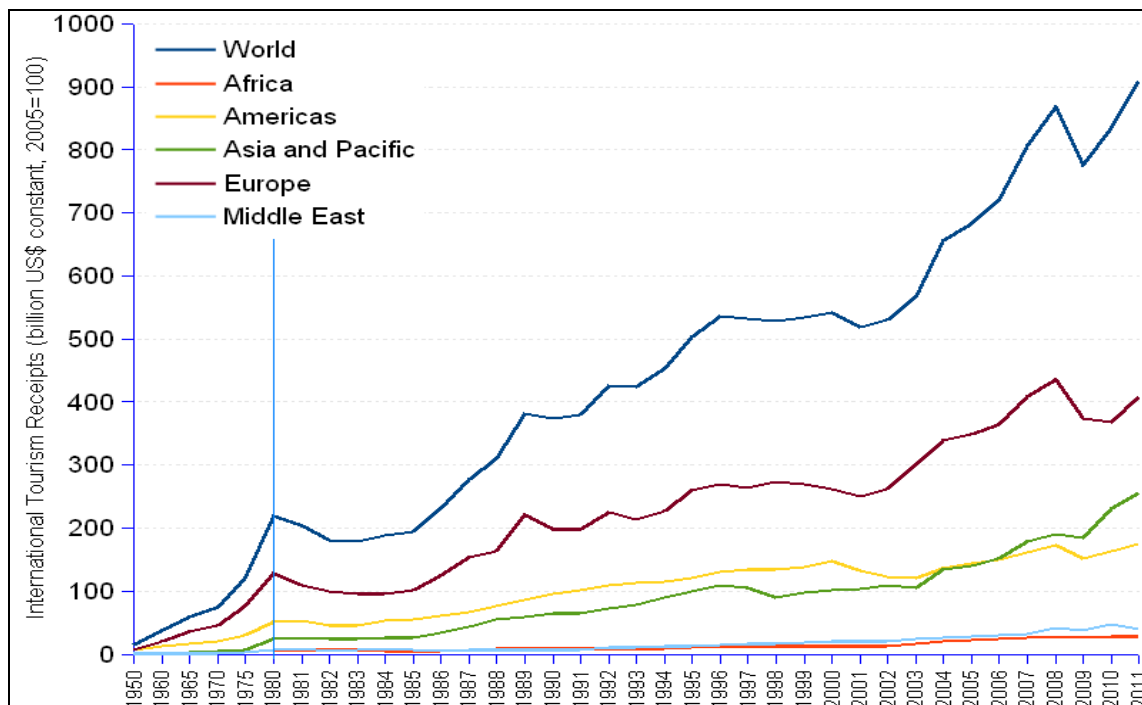
Figure 1.2 International Tourist Arrivals Regional Wise



Source: UNWTO (2016)

The growth of international tourist arrivals went hand in hand with the growth of international receipts. As indicated in Figure 1.3, globally the tourism receipt grew from 200 billion in 1980 to 900 billion in 2011. Regionally, Europe among other regions performed better in terms of receipts, for instance, the receipts in 1980 were over 100 billion in 2011 the receipt grew to 400 billion. On the other hand, Africa and the Middle East did not perform better compared to other regions. Figure 1.3 indicates the summary of tourism receipts regionally from 1950 to 2011.

Figure 1.3 International Tourism Receipts



Source: World Tourism Organization

Developing countries benefit differently from international tourism. For instance, the sector contributes significantly in terms of foreign exchange and direct investment. Also, according to Honeck (2008), international tourism is one of the key sectors for the socio-economic development in these countries. Muganda (2009) adds that it is one of the main contributors of most of developing country's GDP. Tooman (1997) argues that many developing countries have moved away from agriculture and manufacturing dependency economy by the help of this sector. Overall, the international tourism sector is performing well in developing countries. The remarkable performance has been due to the development of economic reforms, the increase in promotional campaigns, the growing demand and various tourist attractions available in these countries.

Apart from international tourism, domestic travel market worldwide accounts for 86% of total tourism (Bigano *et al.*, 2007a). For the past decade, tourism specialists have managed to realise the importance of domestic tourism (Ghimire, 2001), especially in developing countries (Rogerson & Zoleka, 2005). Thus, domestic tourism is doing extremely well as far as the travel market is concerned. The travel market is important because it provides an alternative source of revenue when international market underperforms (Anderson, 2010). Despite its importance, few studies have assessed the demand for domestic tourism (Bigano *et al.*, 2007b). The presence of these studies shows that the importance of domestic travel market is overlooked compared with the international market. This is based on the fact that reliable data on the performance of domestic tourism worldwide is missing (Eijgelaar, Peeterson & Piket, 2008). Also, the current information published by UNWTO in 2013 is largely about the international tourism.

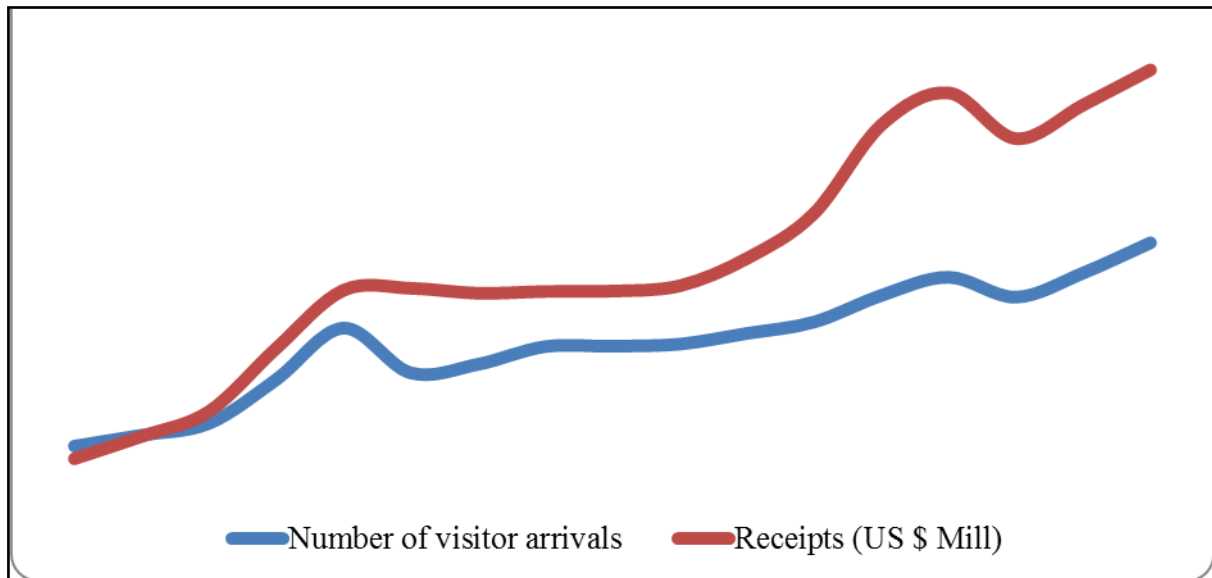
In Tanzania, tourism plays a significant role in the country's economy. It is the second largest sector after agriculture (MIGA, 2005). The sector employs more than 600, 000 people directly and around 2 million people indirectly (Online Tanzania Daily News, 2015). It generates about 17.5 % of the total country's GDP and nearly 25 % of total export earnings (Lawrence, 2011). The current data indicates that the export earning is expected to increase up to 30% by the year 2020 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2008; Lymo, 2009). According to URT (2014), the tourism sector ranked number one in 2012/13 in terms of generating foreign exchange after mining.

Tanzania is famously known for her tourist attractions. It is the only country in the world with more than 44 % of her land is covered with game reserves, controlled conservation areas and national parks (URT, 2014). The country is also known as home to the famous roof of

Africa, the Mount Kilimanjaro. Due to these attractions in 2012, The New York Times named the country as the seventh position among forty-five top tourist destinations. Following these attractions, Tanzania has pulled thousands of international visitors from different parts of the world, thereby making the country be known as one of the competitive tourist destinations in Sub-Saharan Africa (Mkumbo, 2010).

Over a couple of years, the country has managed to register a growth of 65% in international arrivals. The increase in a number of tourists from 782,669 in 2010 to 1.1 million was evident in 2014 (URT, 2014; Online Tanzania Daily News, 2015). The increase of arrivals has resulted in the rise of foreign exchange receipts as well (consider Figure 1.4) for the past three years the data shows that in 2010, the country earned a total of US\$ 1.25 billion, an improvement from US\$ 1.15 billion generated in 2009 (Tanzania Tourist Survey, 2010). The current data indicates that Tanzania experienced an increase in revenue from the tourism sector by 8.2% between 2013 and 2014 which is almost equal to 2,006.3 million US\$ less compared to 1.853.3 million US\$ respectively (Online Tanzania Daily News, 2016).

Figure 1.4 International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in Tanzania



Source: Tanzania Tourist Exit Survey(2011)

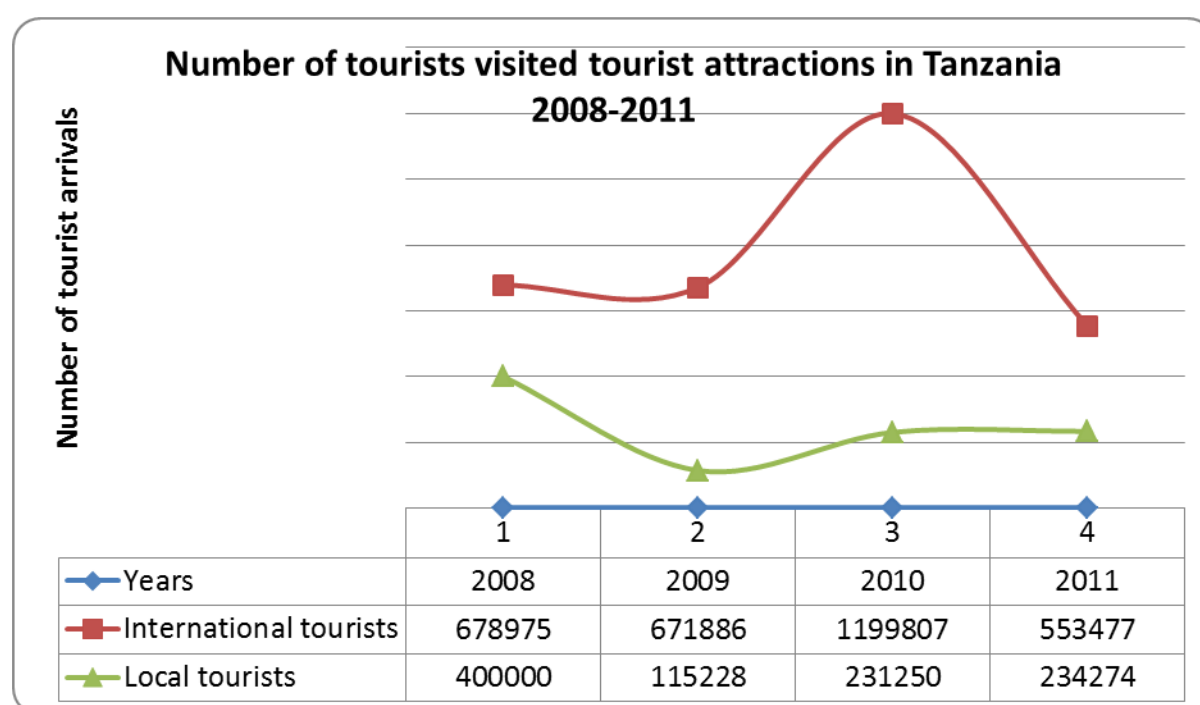
Figure 1.4 shows that there was a notable performance in terms of international arrivals and international receipts from 2003 to 2007. Different from the international market, domestic market in Tanzania failed to sample the same tourist attractions (Shaban, 2006; Anderson, 2010). Several reasons are cited for this low performance which includes highly priced tourism products, poor customer service, limited awareness regarding the existence of the tourist attractions, low income and poor communication and inadequate information (Anderson, 2010; Mariki *et al.*, 2011).

The government embarked in collaborating with the private sector to boost this market to curb the above problems. Anderson (2010) mentions some strategies that have been developed to expand the market. These include establishing the tourism teaching colleges with the aim of improving customer services in tourist sites and hotels, setting of preferential rates specifically to accommodate locals, improving infrastructure and increasing promotional campaigns to attract and encourage domestic tourists to visit various attractions. No significant changes have been reported so far despite the efforts mentioned above. The arrivals of domestic

tourists to various tourist attractions are not in the same pace as international travel market.

Figure 1.5 shows the average performance of the two travel markets from 2008 to 2011.

Figure 1.5 Number of Tourists Visited Tourist Attractions in Tanzania 2008-2011



Source: Tanzania Economic Survey (2010), Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources TANAPA (2011).

On average 27.8% of all visits to various attractions in the country for the past three years i.e., from 2008 to 2010 were done by locals and the remaining significant percent (72.2%) were by internationals (Tanzania economic survey, 2010). From the results above, it shows that they were more international tourists visit various attractions compared with domestic tourists. This situation is also reflected in their contributions to the country's receipts. For instance, in 2014, foreign visitor spending was reported to be 69% higher than the domestic spending (WTTC, 2015). Although international tourism is doing well compared with the domestic travel market, their performance resulted from the extensive promotional campaigns done by the government.

The government of Tanzania has invested a lot in promoting international tourism than domestic tourism. That's why the government has been conducted international tourism exit surveys each year with the aim of improving international travel market and possibly attracts more international tourists. In those surveys, it was found that most international tourists visit Tanzania for leisure (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2007; 2008; 2010; 2014). The current analysis done by WTTC (2015) demonstrated similar observation that 86.7% of all the total visits to Tanzania are leisure based and only 13.3% are for business.

Among the activities which the international tourists participate when they visit the country includes wildlife, beach and mountain climbing (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2014). The findings explain the way the government promotes the country's attractions worldwide. The existing marketing campaigns position the country as a destination mainly for safari and beach. However, Tanzania is rich in terms of multiple tourism attractions ranging from natural, man-made to cultural tourism (traditional clothes, traditional jewelry and carving products). Therefore, it would not be fair to overlook the contribution of other attractions when promoting the country's attractions, because some of the tourists may travel to the country solely for visiting historical attractions or may want to be actively involved in shopping or entertainment activities.

On the other hand, domestic tourists travel within the country either to visit their friends or relatives and sometimes for leisure (Alchard & Kamuzora, 2007; Anderson, 2010; Mariki *et al.*, 2011). The existing studies on domestic tourism in the country focused on addressing the factors affecting domestic tourism. However, more information is needed to highlight the activity preference of domestic tourists. In 2014, domestic travel market contributed 31% of the total government income making the assessment of their preference for travel activities crucial (WTTC, 2015). Although the contribution of this market may seem insignificant

compared to what is contributed by the international travel market, this travel market can do a lot if the government invests its effort to promote this market in the same way as it promotes international travel market. However, in order to promote it effectively, the activity preference of this market needs to be clearly identified.

Despite the fact that, international tourist surveys have suggested that international tourists travel to the country for wildlife, beach and for mountain climbing, still a thorough study on their travel activity preference is needed to validate these findings because individual preferences change over time. For example, Kilungu *et al.* (2014) found that anticipated changes like climate change, loss of biodiversity, land use conservation policies, the introduction of new laws and regulations, as well as change in the political systems have effects on tourist preference for wildlife resources. In addition to this, development of the internet and World Wide Web, as well as changes in the working conditions has caused changes in the tourism sector. For instance, the development of the internet and social media has made people aware of the existence of various tourist attractions worldwide.

Technology also helps them to make travel bookings easily as a result people have been travelling from one country to another easily. These factors have changed peoples' perception and preference regarding holiday vacations. As a result, many individuals have increasingly started demanding and selecting their vacations with a target. Therefore, these changes justify the need to conduct this study. The current study intended to examine the preference of travel activities of both local and international tourists. This study also aimed at comparatively examining whether the two travel markets (i.e., domestic and internationals) differ in terms of their preferences for various travel activities. It moreover intended to examine whether the their activity preferences can be explained by either demographic factors or by the way tourists perceive Tanzania as a tourist destination or influenced by psychographic factors

such as travel motivation and personality. These investigations are vital, especially currently when the country is expecting to attract a total of two million international tourists by 2017 (The citizen reporter and agencies, 2014). In line with this, the country is also expecting an increase in leisure spending from both international and domestic travel market to reach 6% by 2024 from 3.8% in 2014 (WTTC, 2014).

Therefore, Tanzania needs to develop a mechanism to satisfy the needs and preferences of the growing markets and to attract the new markets at the same time; failure to do so may pull the country out of the tourism business. As noted that the tourism industry is very competitive. For example, Tanzania is currently in competition with other African countries such as Kenya, South Africa and Uganda in attracting more tourists (Mariki *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, the best way for the country to remain competitive is for the destination managers and key tourism players to have a deeper understanding of tourist needs and preferences so as to ensure delivery of the appealing services that meet visitors' expectations.

Moreover, Tanzanian government plans to set aside a special budget to promote sun sea and sand seekers for the coming five years (Tanzania International Marketing Strategy, 2012). These programs are intended to secure a more competitive position for Tanzania in the tourism industry and make it a regional tourist hub over other East African countries (Tanzania Tourism Policy, 1999; The Citizen Reporter and Agencies, 2014). Achievement of making Tanzania a regional tourist hub will be difficult if there is no clear identification of tourists' preferences. Thus, it is imperative for the tourism stakeholders to examine first the tourist activity preference in the country instead of spending resources on marketing something that might not be preferred. An understanding of individual's preferences is one of the crucial elements in understanding one's behaviour (Yong & Gartner, 2004). Information on

preferences is also useful for the key tourism players to design products and services efficiently to satisfy the needs of their target customers (Manthiou *et al.*, 2011).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Worldwide there are abundant studies that have been done on travel activities. Examples of these studies include the work by Kim and Jogaratnam (2003) whose focus was segmenting students travel market, Paige and Litrell (2003) on senior travellers, Chow and Murphy (2008) on Chinese outbound travellers, Manthiou *et al.* (2011), Tang *et al.* (2012) on international travellers and Hennessey, Yun and MacDonald (2012) dealt with pleasure travellers while, Io (2015) explored preference of travel activities among Chinese immigrants'.

Previous studies have also focused on comparing activity preferences between Chinese outbound travellers and tourism experts (Chow & Murphy, 2008), Asians international and domestic American students (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003) and business and leisure travellers (Manthiou *et al.*, 2011; Tang *et al.*, 2012). To the best of the current researcher's knowledge, there is limited information on travel activity preferences in the context of Tanzania. It is assumed that wildlife tourism is the most preferred travel activity in Tanzania. This is so because the country is rich in wildlife parks; “ it is known that Tanzania is the home of African's most magnificent game reserves, amazing national parks and “*Ngoro Ngoro* conservation area”(Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2010, p23).

Extensive promotional campaigns to market the country's attractions internationally have always geared to position Tanzania as a wildlife and beach destination. As a result of this, there are an increasing number of tourists witnessed in various wildlife parks. The permanent secretary in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Major General Gaudence Milanzi has also confirmed this when briefing members of press regarding the performance of tourism

in 2014. For the tourism sector to grow, more advertising campaigns are needed both domestically and internationally. There should be a diversification of those campaigns to other tourist attractions other than wildlife (Online Tanzania Daily news, 2016).

The strength of the country's attractions goes beyond wildlife resources. Natural assets such as Lake Manyara, Mount Kilimanjaro (the highest mountain in Africa), sandy beaches, archaeological/ historical sites, rock paintings and rift valley lakes dominate tourist products in the country. Although all these assets have been attracting a good number of tourists from different parts of the world for many years, there is limited detailed information regarding the preference for travel activities in the country. This study intended to bridge this knowledge gap by identifying activity preferences of both local and international tourists and to comparatively assessing the existence of differences in preference for travel activities among tourists.

Although, the tourist activity preference assessment highlights information on tourist behaviour, changes in economic growth and the amounts of leisure time that individual has, have an effect on their preference (La Mondia, Snell & Bhat, 2009). On the other hand, changes in demographics may also bring changes in vacation preferences. Individuals with different socio-economic status are believed to prefer destinations or may choose the same destination. In the area of tourism demographic variables have been employed as one of the segmentation approaches. Its importance have been acknowledged by Abbey (1979), Fesenmaier and Jeng (2000), Peterson and Lambert (2003), Collins and Tisdell (2002a), Reece (2003), Nicholau and Mas (2004), Yusuf and Naseri, (2005), Curtis and Perkins (2006) and Williams, Deslanders and Crawford (2007). Although, the importance of these factors have been appreciated but the role of demographic factors in behavioural studies is frequently taken for granted, partly because they seem to be less useful factors in predicting tourists'

behaviour compared with lifestyle variables (Woodside & Pitts, 1976; Johns & Gyimóthy, 2002; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004a).

In Tanzania, tourism organizations such as Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) and tourism stakeholders such as Travel Agents (TAs) and Tour Operators (TOs) have been collecting demographic information yearly aimed at profiling tourist characteristics. Despite the fact that researchers have questioned the extensive use of these factors, demographic factors can provide meaningful and relevant information (Shih, 1986). This shows that demographic factors tell more than just providing personal details. Therefore, it is wise to take into consideration the role of these factors when assessing preference of travel activities.

Due to its weaknesses in addressing tourist behaviour, suggest that it should not be used solely in the behavioural studies and lifestyle variables (psychographic variables) should be used hand in hand with the demographic factors (Woodside & Pitts, 1976; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004a). The weaknesses mentioned earlier leads to inclusion of both demographic factors and psychographic factors (travel motivation and personality) in this study. The idea of including the latter was borrowed from the work of Reisinger and Mavondo (2004a). They found that psychographic factors to be significant factors in explaining students' behaviour. In addition to that, the foundation of this study was based on the activity based model by Moscardo *et al.* (1996). In that model, researchers were able to establish the link between activity and travel motivation. Despite the fact that this model brought to light on tourist activity its focus was addressing the role of one psychographic factor (i.e., travel motivation) when assessing tourist activity and overlooked the role of other psychographic factors such as personality in influencing travel activities. Additionally, the model tested Australian outbound travellers using secondary analysis. This study addressed the role of demographic and psychographic

factors such as travel motivation and personality in influencing travel activities using primary data.

1.4 Research Objectives

Background information and the research problem helped in constructing the general and specific research objectives regarding travel activity preferences among tourists.

1.4.1 General Research Objective

The overall goal of the study was to examine an integrated approach to understanding tourists' travel activities and assess its relationship with demographics, destination image, travel motivation and personality traits. This study was guided by the following specific objectives.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To identify the kinds of travel activities preferred by tourists.
- ii. To examine whether differences in preference for travel activities are influenced by demographic factors such as marital status, occupation, and family size.
- iii. To examine whether travel motivations and personalities influence preference for travel activities.
- iv. To identify the existence of differences in the preference for travel activities among tourists.
- v. To examine the role of destination image in mediating the effects of travel motivation and personality on travel activities.

1.5 Contributions of the Study

The potential contributions of this study can be presented from both theoretical and empirical point of views. The following sub-headings present the theoretical contribution from the activity based model followed by the solid practical contributions.

1.5.1 Theoretical Contribution of the Study

Basically, the study contributes to the existing theoretical knowledge of activity- based model developed by Moscardo *et al.* (1996). Generally, the model concludes that there is a critical link between travel motivation and activities and between activities and the features of the preferred destinations. Although this model offer a foundation for the understanding vacation destination choice process, its focus is only on a single psychographic factor namely travel motivation. The role of other psychographic factors such as personality was overlooked. Personality explains the greatest part of someone's life, and that's why psychologists have devoted their time to understand individual behaviours. Briefly, personality can be defined as a dynamic organisation, inside a person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings (Allport, 1961).

The inclusion of these factors is important for uncovering important details regarding why particular tourist chooses one destination or activity over the other, thus a better understanding of tourist' behaviour. Several empirical works such as Ozer and Benet-Martinez (2006), De Moor, *et al.* (2006), Rhodes and Smith (2006) and Jopp and Hertzog (2010) justify that one can employ personality information to predict individuals' choice of activities though their focus was on physical, social and general leisure activities.

Furthermore, most of them were done outside the realm of tourism except some few works such as that of Melamed and Meir (1981), whose focus was addressing the relationship between leisure activities congruent and personality patterns. On the other hand, Plog (1974)

focused on classifying tourists based on their personalities. Scott and Mowen (2007) and Schneider and Vogt (2012) examined the big five personality factors among adventure travellers. Reisinger and Mavondo (2004) tested the influence of personality traits on vacation activities among student travel markets while Jani (2014) tested the relationship between big five personality factors on vacation travel behaviour. This implies that there is still a need to examine the relationship between travel activity and psychographic factors such as personality among domestic and international tourists in the context of Tanzania. Therefore, the contribution of this study to the existing theory is based on the role played by personality attributes in influencing tourists' preference for travel activities. Therefore, incorporating this factor in the model will help to shed light on travel activity studies.

Basically, his study contributes to a theoretical part by adding knowledge to the existing travel activity literature. The study uncovers that personality attributes need to be taken into account as much as travel motivation because having such information in place could help in understanding tourists' travel behaviour.

Additionally, the existing travel activity studies focused mainly on addressing tourist activities in travel activities of a specific type of tourist. For instance, Law, Cheung, and Lo (2004) addressed the perception of the importance of travel activities among Hong Kong travelers just to name a few. Few of them went far and addressing the relationship between activity and travel motivations. Some of these works including a work by Moscardo *et al.* (1996), Reisinger and Mavondo (2004a), Prebensen *et al.* (2006) and Lien (2010). However, the focus of these studies was addressing the effects of general travel motivation factors on a specific travel market. For example Moscardo *et al.* (1996) narrowed their study to Australian outbound travelers, Reisinger and Mavondo (2004a) based on student travel market and Lien (2010) focused on Korean families who have disabled children.

Additionally, limited information is available regarding a clear relationship between personality and travel activities. The existing personality studies such that of Kolanowski and Richards (2002), Kraaykamp and Eijck (2005), Barnett (2006), Kuo and Tang (2011) and Howard (2013), have managed to show that there is a relationship between personality and activity although, their focus was on leisure activities such as watching TV, reading magazine and playing musical instruments.

The literature has also indicated that in the area of tourism demographic variables have been employed as one of the segmentation approaches. Findings from the literature have indicated that demographic factors do play an important role in influencing activity choice. However, a clear link between specific demographic factor and specific travel activity is overlooked. This shows that the existing travel activity literature has managed to reveal the differences in the activity preferences among tourists, also to identify the types of activities preferred by tourists. This study identified travel activity preferences of both international and domestic tourists; it went further comparing their travel activity preferences and finally testing the relationship between travel specific travel activities (such as outdoor, shopping, sightseeing and entertainment), specific demographic factors (such as marital status, family size and tourist occupation) and specific travel motivation factors (such as social, intellectual, stimulus avoidance and mastery competency) and specific personality factors (such as neurotic personality and closed to new experience personality). The findings of this study added knowledge to the existing travel activity studies by revealing that demographic and psychographic factors have an important role to play in influencing tourists activity preferences therefore, these factors should not be ignored.

1.5.2 Empirical Contributions

The findings of this study offer evidence for the application of the conceptual model and contribute to the existing body of knowledge on tourist travel activities. Since it has been emphasized (refer sub-section 1.2) tourism is a competitive business and Tanzania is in competition with other countries such as South Africa and Kenya as they attract similar customers. A deeper understanding of tourists' travel activity preferences is needed if the country has to become competitive with other countries in attracting and satisfying the preferences of her customers. The findings of this study offered an empirical value to the understanding of tourist travel activities. This study specifically helps to identify the types of travel activities preferred by tourists and examine whether factors such as demographic, travel motivation and personality traits have any effect on visitors' preferences

Knowledge developed from this study can also help the destination managers and marketers to design and improve the promotion strategies that will go hand in hand with the tourist preferences. These strategies will help tourism stakeholders to use their resources more effectively. More specifically, the findings of this study can assist Tanzanian key tourism stakeholders to diversify the focus of their promotional campaigns from wildlife attractions to include other attractions such as islands, beaches and city attractions. As a result of this diversification, the country will be offering a chance for tourists to choose Tanzania for its various travel activities and not just for its wildlife resources.

The findings can also be utilised by destination managers to promote the appealing activities to potential tourists. Promotional campaigns to attract tourists to a given country should be directed towards a specific activity. For example, the results have shown that promoting beach, islands and city attractions will help to attract Asians, tourists from Europe and some tourist from African countries. Campaigns to attract tourists from visiting city attractions

should be directed mostly to Tanzanians. Tourists from Germany, India, Kenya, South Africa, UK, and the USA have the passion for climbing mountains.

In addition, policy makers can use the information generated from this study to develop long-term strategies and plans to boost domestic travel market the same way as international travel market. Future campaigns to develop the tourism market in Tanzania should not overlook the domestic travel market because it is predicted that the domestic travel spending will grow by 6.6% per annum to reach Tshs. 2,980.5 billion in 2025 (WTTC, 2015).

1.6 Justification for Choosing Northern Tourist Circuit and the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba as the Study Areas

1.6.1 Northern Tourist Circuit

This study was conducted in the Northern tourist site and of Pemba and Zanzibar islands in Tanzania. The Northern tourist area was chosen because of its multiple tourist attractions (Tanzania Master Plan, 2002). The Northern tourist circuit extends from Lake Victoria in the Lake zone to the Usambara Mountains in the East Tanga. The area consists of famous wildlife resources including Serengeti National Park, Lake Manyara, Tarangire National Park, Ngoro Ngoro conservation area and Olduvai George (the famous archeological site). The area also has several mountains and beautiful plateaus including Kilimanjaro, which is the highest mountain in Africa.

These natural resources have been a source of international tourists' attraction. For example, according to Tanzania Tourism Master Plan, 2002) mountain Kilimanjaro attracts thousands of mountain climbers from different parts of the world. Further, the circuit has many game and controlled reserved areas that include; Usambara, Mkomazi, and the Amboni caves. Anderson (2010) added that Tanzania is famously known worldwide for its largest crater in the world (Ngoro Ngoro) and that this attraction site is included in the eight world wonders.

Additionally, this tourism zone contributes a lot in generating revenue in the country. This is why the area has been referred to as the backbone of the country's tourism sector for a couple of years (Tanzania Tourism Master plan, 2002; Kahyarara & Mchallo, 2008). The area has also been receiving many international tourists compared to other tourist areas (Tanzania Tourism Policy, 1999; Tanzania Tourism master plan, 2002; Kahyarara & Mchallo, 2008; Anderson, 2010).

The Northern tourist circuit, moreover, is well developed in terms of road and communication systems; most of the Travel Agents' (TA's) brochures have been using the images from this tourist zone to promote the country's attractions. This area has better facilities than any other tourist site (Mariki *et al.*, 2011). For instance; most of the TAs' offices are located in the same area (Tanzania Tourism Master Plan, 2002). Mkumbo (2010, p.6) commented that "Arusha is the main hub in this circuit and it is regarded as the main tourist city in the country". The area also harbors the biggest conference centre in East Africa, (AICC). Moreover, Northern tourist site has over 300 hotel facilities and the Kilimanjaro international airport (KIA) is located there (Kahyarara & Mchallo, 2008).

1.6.2 Zanzibar and Pemba Islands

The islands were also included in this study because they have beautiful, clean, and sandy beaches. They are also among the preferred tourist areas in Tanzania for beach sports, nature, marine parks, scuba diving and snorkeling and cultural/ historical activities (Anderson, 2010). These islands are famously known for Islamic, Swahili, and Arab cultures. The availability of the variety of spices in these islands are dubbed the "Spice Island" (because of the spices available). Stone Town is one of the best tourist attractions in the islands. Major festival activities in Tanzania are held in Zanzibar, for example, "Jahazi" and "Jazz festival", "Kizimkazi cultural music festival", "Sauti za busara" music festival event and ZIFF festival

of the Dhow countries (Tanzania Travel and Tourism directory, 2012). These festival activities stimulate tourist travelling in there in some way.

1.7 Organization of the Study

Chapter One introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem and research objectives, as well as research questions upon which the study is based. The Justification for the study area is addressed in this chapter too.

Chapter Two begins with the clarification of the key concepts used in this study and discussing the significance of each concept in the tourism sector in detail. The chapter also presents the relevant literature on demographics, travel motivation, personality, travel activities and destination image. It moreover covers all the relevant theories such as leisure motivation and big five personality theory. On top of that, other theories such as activity-based model, reasoned action behaviour and preference formation model are used to depict the foundation of the key concepts such as activities, individual behaviour, and preferences.

Chapter Three introduces the conceptual framework guiding the casual assessment of travel motivation, personality and travel activities. The chapter ends with the presentation of the proposed hypotheses.

Chapter Four establishes research design, survey instrument, scale development, data collection methods, sampling design and the justification for the scale modification.

Chapter Five addresses data analysis methods which include data cleaning, descriptive statistics, independent t-test, MANOVA, reliability, validity, CFA, and SEM.

Chapter Six presents and discusses the study findings which were generated from descriptive analysis independent t-test, MANOVA, and SEM.

Chapter Seven presents the overall discussion. Generally, this chapter summarises the existence of the relationship between demographic factors, travel motivation, personality and preference for travel activities. The chapter ends with the discussion relating to marketing implications.

Chapter Eight, the last chapter discusses the managerial and theoretical implications of the findings. The chapter also recommends areas for future research. Lastly, the chapter finalises the discussion by making a conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW OF THEORIES AND CONCEPTS

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter reviews the relevant literature related to travel activities. First, a review of concepts such as activity preference, demographic factors, travels motivation, personality and destination image is provided. The chapter also reviews the significance of each of these constructs separately. The discussion of these concepts serves as the research background, research questions and research hypotheses. Furthermore, this chapter also reviews leisure motivation scale and big five personality theories which allowed the researcher to identify the research gaps existing in the literature. This section highlights justification for choosing the theories used in this study is also highlighted in this chapter.

2.2 The Concept of Preference and Its Significance

Preference can be traced back in the studies of consumer behaviours; it relates to when a consumer shows interest on one thing over the other. Exploring this concept is a bit tricky because consumer needs and desires are changing over time. Their decisions are easy to observe, but the psychological processes behind these decisions are difficult to evaluate them. Their preferences might be known but the procedure to evaluate it may take some time because there is no universal definition of this concept.

Generally, this concept has been defined differently by different theorists. The term preference has been expressed in multiple ways. Very often, psychologists have been using this term to express the latent behaviour of considering something desirable or undesirable (Zajonc, 1980). This proposition can be interpreted as preferences are similar to attitudes.

Decrop (2006) defines preference as one of the components of the socio-psychological process such as attitude, perception, and learning and their inclusion in decision-making. In short, this can be summarised that preference is an act of choosing one product alternative over the other.

This concept has also been defined as an act whereby a tourist is making a decision of selecting from among a set of choices influenced by his/her travel motivation (Ashworth and Goodall, 1990 cited in Tran and Ralston, 2006). This concept is more specific compared to motivations (Pearce, 1988). Tourist preferences are reflected by where they go and what they are planning to do when they arrive at their arrival at the target destination(s).

In this study preference for travel, activities are simply defined as an act whereby a tourist prefers to take part in any of the travel activities when he/she goes to tourist attractions in Tanzania.

On the other hand, economists and behavioural scientists have been equating this concept with choice or willingness to pay (Simonson, 2008). This proposition implies that an individual's preference for choosing option one over two and three making him to either choose first option over the second or third or that a person is willing to pay more for option one than the second or third.

Although the concept of customer preference has been used by researchers more often, its meaning has been mistakenly substituted with a choice. However, these two are reported to be independent concepts. Choice is simply referred to as an action that individual takes in getting the desired objectives, while preference includes one's state of mind (Hansson & Grune-Yanoff, 2006).

Despite the fact that preference is hardly understandable, it is considered that individuals' preference can be analysed effectively. The information generated out of it can be employed to understand how individuals make their choices when they decide to choose a particular service provider against competitors. Such information can also be used to determine which features are needed; how customers will behave towards their product/service and to predict their purchasing behaviour. The assessment of an individuals' preference is one of the key variables that the service providers need to take into account when assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the competitors (Voicu, 2013). Such information also can be used to measure the success and failure of the product in the market.

The concept of preference is so important to organizations because having such knowledge helps an organization to understand the critical business questions such as those concerned with the reasons for a certain company to lose customers or for a claimed satisfied customers suddenly leaving one service provider for the competitors when they get an opportunity to do so. All these critical questions are related to customer preference (Singh, 2008). Therefore, an understanding of these key questions will help the organizations both to improve and protect their potential customers and possibly attract new ones. In addition, a clear understanding of this concept will help the organisation to measure customer satisfaction (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009).

The above researchers tried to highlight the meaning of an individuals' preference from different perspectives. In the discussions, they showed that individual preference is developed from the choice that one makes when choosing one thing over the other. The choice that one makes is guided by the demand and determined by the willingness and ability to consume a given product/service. Therefore, information regarding individuals' choice and demand can be useful in understanding one's preference. One can conclude that preference involves a set

of assumptions that an individual has regarding a real or imaginary choice between alternatives and the chance to sort them based on the willingness to pay, demand, a degree of satisfaction, gratification, happiness or utility.

Although, the understanding of these two concepts is important in evaluating ones' preference, it is better to trace back its origin. The following section presents the origin of the concept of individuals' preference. The origin of individual's preference can be traced through theories of reasoned action, planned behaviour and consumer preference formation model (PFM). These theories play a key role in understanding the foundation of an individual's preference. Although these theories have been employed in fields other than tourism, their significance can be appreciated in understanding tourist preferences.

2.3 Overview to Understanding the Origin of an Individuals' Preference

As highlighted in section 2.2 above, individual's preference is determined by various factors, including a willingness to pay and choice. The two factors have been mentioned by economists as important factors in understanding individuals' preference (Simonson, 2008). Apart from these factors, psychological factors such as values and attitude are also regarded as key factors in understanding ones' preference. Although these factors are important in understanding one's preference, these abstract factors are difficult to be measured using economic models.

To curb this challenge in behavioural studies, several theories have been put forward to understand one's behaviour. For example, the theory of reasoned action, among other consumer behaviour theories, has been employed to present the foundation for understanding an individual's behaviour. This theory was developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in 1980. It addressed the role of psychological factors such as attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in predicting individuals' behaviour.

2.3.1 Reasoned Action and Planned Behaviour Theories

The theory of reasoned action states that individual's behaviour is a function of one's intention to perform a particular behaviour. An intention is determined by three core factors, including attitude toward a particular behaviour (an individual's positive or negative evaluation of self-performance of the given behaviour), subjective norms (an individual's belief of social normative pressures, significant others that he/she should perform a particular behaviour) and perceived behavioural control (an individual's perceived ease or difficulty of performing a given behaviour). The last factor was added by Ajzen (1985; 1991) in the extended version of reasoned action theory called planned behaviour.

The theory of planned behaviour aimed at improving the predictive power of the relationship between behaviour and attitude. Initially, the behavioural intention was predicted by subjective norms and attitude, however, later on, Ajzen (1985) realised that there was volition behaviour control excluded in the previous model. According to this theory, behavioural intention is the best predictor of the actual behaviour. Behavioural intention has been simply described as a state of an individuals' readiness to perform certain behaviour. This factor has also been identified to be an immediate antecedent of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2000).

This theory holds that, among other factors, individual attitude toward a given behaviour in question can be used to predict one's behaviour. Subjective norms, on the other hand reveal one's intention towards a particular behaviour. A central theme in this theory is that if an individual evaluates a given behaviour positively (attitude) and if they are being influenced by significant others towards performing a particular behaviour (subjective norms), it will lead to a stronger intention (motivation) to perform a given behaviour. Reasoned action and planned behaviour theories are so crucial in understanding customer preference because they

lay down a foundation for understanding individual's behaviour by integrating attitude dimension in the building blocks of basic customer preference model.

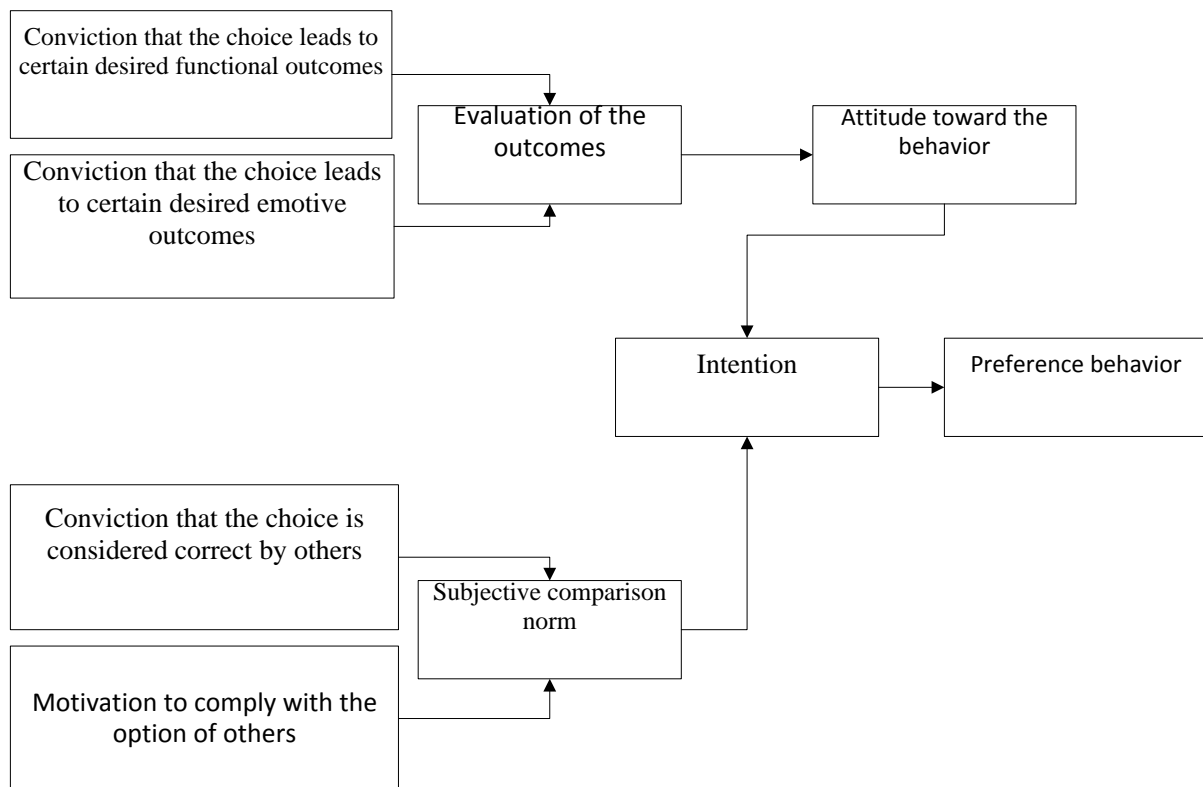
2.3.2 Preference Formation Model (PFM)

According to Preference Formation Model (FPM), preference is developed when a consumer is bonded to a particular organisation through a mutual relationship. Well established and successful companies frequently take initiatives that go beyond offering just goods or services to their customers but rather maintaining a beneficial long-term beneficial relationship with their potential customers. Such committed relationship helps organisation to survive in a competitive environment (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009). One of the key items of the PFM includes the development of a preference formation profile. The profile highlights the necessary attributes needed in each stage of the model.

In understanding a customer's preference, two components need to be examined, namely the functional/ performance demands and the emotive outcomes. Functional items are those items which are related to the product or service while the emotive dimensions (internal factors) involve the relationship of components, which means treatment demands and expectations between customers' needs, desires and what the company offers. Customers evaluate products or service based on their expectations before they even purchase a particular product/service and after consuming it (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009).

According to PFM, there should be a balance between functional and emotive attributes in that way an organization can employ all the resources to deliver what is expected. The model is developed to offer a better understanding of how customer preference is established and it proposes the effective way to predict their preference as it was highlighted by Schiffman and Kanuk (2009). Figure 2.1 presents customer preference formation.

Figure 2.1 Basic Structural Model of Customer Preference Formation



Source: Schiffman and Kanuk (2009)

The applicability of the PFM in the context of tourism indicates that tourists are facing challenges when they make their travelling decisions. Prior to their vacations, they have to make a choice regarding where to visit. The choice of a destination will depend on the conviction that the chosen area will offer the desired advantages. For example, if a tourist believes that choosing Tanzania as a holiday destination will satisfy his/her desire to climb Mount Kilimanjaro, then there is a chance for that tourist to visit the country. Moreover, if the same tourist develops a belief that the selected destination will meet his/her expectations then he/she can evaluate his/her travel experience positively. In addition to that, a tourist can develop a positive feeling regarding a certain place if the idea of choosing it comes from a friend, family or peers. If he/she is convinced that his friend evaluates it positively, then he

can be motivated to visit that area. After visiting it, a tourist will be in a position to evaluate his travel experience in a broader perspective. If he was able to take part in most of his preferred activities then he can develop positive feelings in that destination and that increases the chance for him to revisit the same destination in the future.

2.4 Concept of Travel Activity

The concept of travel activity has been defined differently by different theorists. Travel activities are viewed as useful indices that can be employed to understand tourists' behaviour (McIntosh & Goldner, 1990) and to identify their experiences at the destination (Ryan, 2002). The works of early researchers such as Um and Crompton (1990) and Hsieh, O'Leary and Morrison (1992) in the area of destination choice models sees travel activities (attractions) as critical attributes of destinations which are evaluated by travelers based on their ability to satisfy their needs and desires (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). In a simple term, travel activities can be defined to include all tourist activities that a particular tourist participate when traveling to a certain destination. In this study, travel activities are defined to include all tourist attributes that tourist prefers to participate when visiting various tourist attractions in the Northern Tourist circuit in Tanzania.

2.4.1 Tourist Preference and Travel Activities

The tourist attractions (travel activities) need to be assessed by the key tourism stakeholders. The idea of evaluating the tourist attractions can be closely linked to a decision of choosing a destination. The decision of choosing a particular area for vacation is important to most tourism marketers and researchers as well as theorists. Marketers have been using such information to form development plans and market their destinations (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996).

The complex nature of this subject matter has brought lots of unresolved questions to researchers. The need to solve such a problem made them come up with the idea of looking for a way to incorporate this concept with other key concepts such as travel motivation,

destination image, and market segmentation. The aim of combining these factors was for them to reveal their possible relationships.

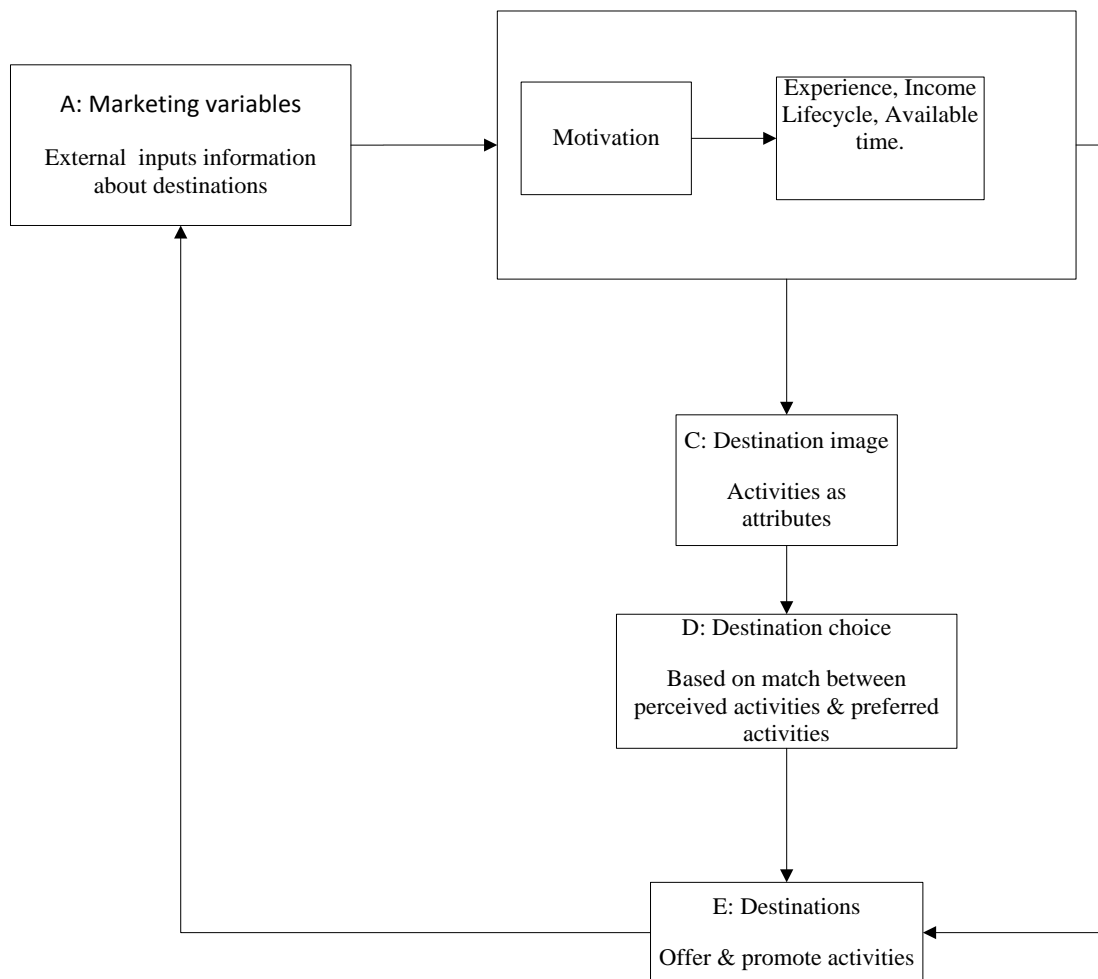
The works of several researchers in the destination choice models suggest that activities are one of the most important attributes perceived by travellers as a means of satisfying their needs and desires (Um & Crompton, 1990; Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison, 1992). Activities are viewed as important key attributes of destinations and they are believed to be the major resources offered to tourists (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Because of these attractions, visitors have been motivated to go to a particular place to get what they desire (Gunn, 1988). The existence of various tourist attractions in a particular destination offer tourists the opportunity to see and participate in various activities but also offers them a chance to have a memorable vacation experience. This is why marketers and destination managers need to have an understanding of activity preferences. Based on Gunn's arguments, any destination development has to start with activity identification.

The question of how activities can be related to the destination has raised concerns to a good number of researchers including Moscardo *et al.* (1996). Previous destination choice models proposed that motives do offer travellers with expectations for activities and destinations are seen as a source point for providing those activities. Since activities are viewed as one of the core attributes of destinations, then the need to empirically test the link between them becomes indispensable.

Moscardo *et al.* (1996) developed a model trying to link activities with the destination choices. The idea of investigating travel activity and destination choices was originally derived from the work of Gunn (1998). The assumption behind the activity based model is that the link between travel motives and destinations can be explained through activities.

Figure 2.2 presents the proposed relationships between travel motives and destination choice. It also offers detailed information regarding destination choice process.

Figure 2.2 Activity-Based Model of Destination Choice



Source: Moscardo *et al.* (1996)

Figure 2.2 above indicates that there is a relationship between marketing variables, travel motivation, socio-demographic factors and the choice of destination. In testing the proposed relationships, Moscardo *et al.* (1996) developed several research questions guiding their study. First, they proposed that there is a linkage between travel motives are linked to socio-demographic factors such as lifecycles, income, available time and travel experience. Secondly, the model examines the linkage between motives and destinations through

activities. Thirdly, they tested the link between travel motives, destination images, and destination choice. Finally, the role of marketing information in influencing the choice of destination was also tested.

The overall findings from the activity based model found the presence of the link between travel motives and activities. The findings specifically report that self-developed travellers participated in various activities, such as visiting local habitats, taking short excursions, touring the countryside, visiting wilder areas, historical sites, and sightseeing. Additionally, those whose motive was to escape engaged in sunbathing, beach activity, swimming and visiting entertainment places while those whose motive was to gain social status engaged in sports activities such as golf and tennis.

Furthermore, it was also found that escapists are more likely to choose destination which offers nightlife and entertainments and water-sports activities, while social travellers would go for destination which is rich in sports activities, nightlife, entertainments, shopping, cruises, casinos and gambling activities and self-developed traveller would choose destination which is rich in historical attractions, such as historical sites, art galleries, and archaeological sites.

Although the activity based model found the link between travel motives and activities and destination choice, it employed secondary data collection and used chi-square analysis method in testing the proposed links. It further focused on Australians outbound travellers. Activity study that addresses the casual relationships between travel motivation and travel activities using structural equation modeling in the context of Tanzania is limited. Additionally, the activity based model has remained silent on explaining the link between the role of other psychographic factors such as personality and activities. This study extended the

activity based model by adding personality traits in the model and testing the casual links between the two factors.

2.5 Significance of Preference for Travel Activities

An understanding of visitors' preference for travel activities is vital to destination managers and marketers. This knowledge enables them to ascertain tourist experiences at the destinations, and to understand the behaviour of tourists (McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Suh & Gartner, 2004; Yong & Gartner, 2004; Littrell, Paige & Song, 2004; Tang *et al.*, 2012). For example, a preference for adventure life can be evidenced from seeing an individual participating in challenging activities such as mountain climbing, scuba diving, and camping. While, those interested in cultural activities may be seen taking an active role in visiting historical sites, museum, traditional art paintings and festival activities (Tran & Ralston, 2006).

Additionally, having knowledge about visitors' travel activities may help marketers to design appropriate marketing strategies and determine the product/service consumption patterns (Decrop, 2000). The investigation on preference for travel activities helps tourism stakeholders to understand their customers' wants and needs better. Such knowledge empowers them to offer attributes that satisfy their potential customers (Littrell, Paige & Song, 2004). This is because different attributes can satisfy different groups of customers. On top of that, an understanding of preferences for travel activities has been the core theme to many tourism researchers for a couple of years now. It is one of the key strategic decisions that marketers make when developing marketing plans (Dolnicar, 2004; Lee, Lee & Wicks, 2004; Park & Yoon, 2009; Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele & Beaumont, 2009).

2.6 The Concept of Travel Activity

The concept of travel activity has been defined differently by different theorists. Travel activities are viewed as useful indices that can be employed to understand tourists' behaviour (McIntosh & Goldner, 1990) and to identify their experiences at destination (Ryan, 2002). The works of early researchers such as Um and Crompton (1990) and Hsieh, O'Leary and Morrison (1992) in the area of destination choice models sees travel activities (attractions) as critical attributes of destinations which are evaluated by travelers based on their ability to satisfy their needs and desires (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). In a simple term, travel activities can be defined to include all tourist activities that a particular tourist participate when traveling to a certain destination. In this study, travel activities are defined to include all tourist attributes that tourist prefers to participate when visiting various tourist attractions in the Northern Tourist circuit in Tanzania.

2.6.1 Travel Activity Studies

Several studies have been done to examine travel activities. In the pursuit of understanding travellers' behaviour, different researchers have developed several segmentation strategies, one being activity. Examples of such studies are those whose focus was either on segmenting those who visit friends and relatives (Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison, 1992; Jeffrey & Xie, 1995). Also ecotourists (Wight, 1996), adventure tourists (Sung, Morrison & O'Leary, 2000), cultural tourists (McKercher *et al.*, 2002; Dolnicar, 2002), student travel market (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003). And traveller who visit heritage sites (Yan *et al.*, 2007), domestic pleasure travellers (Choi, Murray & Kwan, 2011), international travellers (Manthiou *et al.*, 2011) or outbound travellers (Finsterwalder & Laesser, 2013).

Apart from activity segmentation studies, there are abundant ethnographic studies that have examined travel activities in a broader perspective. For example, Law, Cheung, and Lo (2004) analysed the perception of the importance of travel activities among Hong Kong

travellers. These researchers employed descriptive statistics to highlight the importance of travel activities. In their study they found that Hong Kong travellers perceived VFR and dining as the important activity, meanwhile, outdoor activities ranked low.

In the same line, Onome (2004) conducted a comparative study between international tourists and domestic tourists in terms of product choice, activity participation and travel motivations in Nigeria. International tourists valued more cultural and historical tourism while domestic tourist puts more emphasis on nature/ecotourism and beach/water resorts.

Chow and Murphy (2008), on the other hand, focused more on identifying the travel activity of Chinese outbound travellers for overseas destinations. They compared the views of tourists with those of experts regarding preferences for travel activity. Using the mean rankings, tourism experts considered that Chinese tourists would prefer sightseeing, shopping, culture and heritage, entertainment, participatory and dining activities in that particular order. Having compared the preference ratings between tourists and experts, researchers found that there was a modest degree of differences between the two groups. The major difference between the two groups was in dining and shopping activities.

It was further revealed that travel activity preferences differed among Chinese who were from different cities and regions. For instance, a significant difference in dining activity was found between tourists from Beijing and Shanghai, where tourists from these regions prefer dining and eating out, a different case was reported from those in Guangdong and other places. Tourists from Guangdong prefer less sightseeing compared with those from other places. It was further reported that tourists from Beijing and Shanghai prefer culture and heritage activities more than those from Guangdong province. Also, significant differences were revealed in participatory activities, which were preferred more by tourists from Beijing than those from Guangdong.

Tang *et al.* (2012), on the other hand, identified the activity preferred among international travellers (both business and leisure from Shanghai). Their results indicated that both groups had shown a common interest in learning about the local people's life, followed by entertainment activities and traditional activities.

Io (2015) examined the preference of tourist activities among Chinese immigrants during their homeland visits. Researcher further assessed the extent to which previous memories to their hometown influenced their preference for travel activities. It was found that respondents participated in sightseeing were influenced by the previous memories related to their hometown. The implication of the study suggests that the Chinese immigrants' preference for tourist activities during their hometown visit was attributed by their desires for cultural identity, relieving their previous life as well as learning the changes that happened in their hometown and in their own personal lives over a couple of years.

Notwithstanding what has been published so far, there are still limited studies on travel activity preferences among local and international tourists in Tanzania. Furthermore, the previous studies did not examine the possible factors affecting travel activities. Most of them only focused on identifying the preferred activities and examining the differences in preference for activities. Therefore, the current study intended to identify the preferred travel activities among domestic and international tourists. It also examined the influence of demographics and psychographics (travel motivation and personality) on travel activity preference. For a brief summary of the main travel activity studies see Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Summary of Travel Activity Studies

Author (s)	Aim of the study	Findings
Dolnicar (2002)	Segment cultural tourists	Differences in activity preference were observed based on tourists' country of origin
Kim & Jogaratnam (2003)	Segment student travels market	Activity preference among students are similar
Chandler & Costello (2002)	Profile visitors to heritage destination based on activity	Most of the visitors were similar in terms in terms of demographic features and activity choice
Paige & Litrell (2003)	Identify tourism activities sought during travel & to compare their preferences for shopping venues, mall characteristics, and product criteria	Three groups of tourism activities were revealed; outdoors, cultural/historical, arts and sports oriented activities.
Lehto <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Examine tourist shopping preference and behaviour in relation to socio-demographics	Travel purpose, travel style, age and gender significant factor in influencing travellers shopping items they prefer to buy
Law, Cheung & Lo (2004)	Examine Hong Kong travellers perception of the importance of travel activities	Food sampling was the most important activity among travellers
Onome (2004)	Compared foreign & domestic Nigerian tourists in product choice, activity participation & travel motivations	Domestic tourists showed interests in nature/ecotourism, beach/water resorts while foreign tourists indicated their preferences in cultural and historical tourism.
Chow & Murphy (2008)	Examine travel activity preferences among Chinese outbound travellers	The preference ratings between tourists and experts show that there was a modest degree of differences between the two groups The major difference was in dining and shopping activities. Travel activity preferences differed among Chinese who were from different cities and regions
Choi, Murray & Kwan (2011)	Segmenting the new Brunswick travel market	Activity is a viable basis for market segmentation.
Manthiou <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Investigate activity preferences among international travellers	Business travellers show interest in most of the activities than leisure travellers.
Tang <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Propose a holistic approach to Investigate activity preference Among international travellers	Business travellers show interest in more activities than leisure travellers.
Io (2015)	Examine Chinese immigrants preference for tourist activities during their hometown visits	Respondents prefer sightseeing and relieve the past tourist activities.

2.7 Demographic Factors

Literally, demography was translated from Greek which means the description of the people (Pollard, Yusuf & Pollard, 1990). This concept was first used in 1855 by a French mathematician called Guillard. Researchers have highlighted that demography involves the scientific study of human populations based on their size, structure, and development. Demographers deal with the collections of these data to determine social, biological, economic, political, geographical, ecological and historical changes.

In the area of tourism, the idea of demographic variables has emerged as one of the segmentation approaches; others include geographic characteristics, psychographic and product-related characteristics. Segmentation using demographics simply means categorizing individuals based on variables that identify them easily (Cook, Yale & Marqua, 2006). Such variables include gender, age ethnicity, occupation, education level, income, household size and family size.

Mazilu and Mitroi (2010) defined demographic factors as descriptive segmentation technique, whereby socio-demographic factors are directly involved. Researchers have been using the term socio-demographics to represent general personal details. The common socio-demographic factors that have been used by most tourism experts especially in their segmentation studies include age, family life cycle, income, nationality, and religion.

For the purpose of this study, demographic factors are simply defined as those factors which do not only enlighten the general tourist characteristics but also are predicted to have an impact on the preferences for travel activities. These factors include marital status, family size (in terms of a number of children) and tourist occupation.

2.7.1 Significance of Demographic Factors

Demographics have been frequently used because they are easily accessed, routinely collected and easily analyzed (Abbey, 1979). Above all, they are available at a very low cost (Mazilu & Mitroi 2010). Marketers have been employing them to identify customer characteristics, distinguish them and to develop various marketing strategies. Academicians, on the other hand have been using them in assessing tourist behaviours (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Curtis & Perkins, 2006). Also predicting visitors travel demand (Collins & Tisdell 2002a), understanding visitors vacation decision (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000; Peterson & Lambert, 2003; Reece, 2003; Nicholau & Mas, 2004; Yusuf & Naseri, 2005), understanding their choice of destination (Tyrell *et al.*, 2001; Teaff & Turpin, 1996) and predicting their choice of a vacation type (Williams, Deslanders & Crawford, 2007).

2.7.2 Major Demographic Factors

2.7.2 Age

Age is considered to be a crucial demographic factor by tourism stakeholders because leisure demand can effectively be predicted through visitors' age (Mieczkowski, 1990). Several studies for example Mieczkowski (1990), Fesenmaier and Jeng, (2000) and Spence (2000), have been done in the area of tourism and hospitality appreciating the role of age in understanding visitors' travel decision. Individuals' age can be used to understand one's needs, for example, a decision to undertake a particular trip involves multiple choices, where to go, when to go, who to contact, where to find attractions, which travel agents to contact and so forth. All these choices are reported to be affected by one's age (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000).

Information regarding individuals' age has been used by the service providers to determine the product consumption patterns. Others have used such information to predict tourist activity participation. For instance, Spence (2002) examines the effect of age on the probability of participating in wildlife activities. It was found that the probability of an individual to participate in wildlife activities varies with age. The analysis also revealed that the probability of activity participation increases when an individual is young and decreases as that individual grows old. Similar observation was confirmed by Teaff and Turpin (1996) who noted that visitors over 55 years old are facing a challenge of participating in a limited number of activities. Individuals who are young do more take active roles in various activities than the older ones (Agahi & Parker, 2005).

In the area of sports, Douvis, Yusof and Douvis (1998) reported that age affects sports participation, whereby younger visitors are believed to be the champions when it comes to taking part in sports activities than older travellers. Iso-Ahola *et al.* (1994) added out that older people are limited to take part in much of leisure activities because of health problems. They are obligated sometimes to participate in a limited number of activities such as social and family activities than challenging activities (Kelly, 1980). Apart from health problems, factors such as fear of violence and limited level of socialization were reported to be among the main constraining factors (Wearing, 1999).

Although age has been seen as an important factor in influencing individuals' participation in sports activities or wildlife areas, this factor was reported to be negatively related to physical activity (Cheah & Poh, 2014). A similar finding was also reported by Borodulin *et al.* (2008) that age may not be an important factor in influencing physical activity. Additionally, this factor is reported to be one of the crucial factors in understanding one's behaviour; however, its effect in influencing travel behaviour is not as significant as income (Guiliano, 2003)

because the level of income determines where to go for a holiday and the number of days that an individual can spend at the destination (Eugenio-Martin, 2003). The overall findings indicate that age is an important factor which can be employed to profile an individual and predict one's purchasing behaviour, choice of destination, choice of activity, consumption patterns, the length of stay and even the spending power. It seems that someone's age might have an impact on pre-vacation decision phase than in the later stage. Other socio-demographic factors seem to exert a significant effect on the overall vacation decision. In his concluding remarks, Peterson (2007) highlighted that the age group difference in the travel market is not something new and its influence on vacation behaviour eclipsing the effects of other economic variables such as income and assets.

2.7.2.2 Income

Income is among the most important components which can be employed to predict consumption of tourism products. The decision to take a trip is affected by the amount of income an individual has (Tae, 2007). It is hypothesised that the probability of the medium and high-income earners to go on holiday is much higher than the lower income earners. This implies that the better the financial position the greater the chance of taking a holiday vacation or participating in leisure activities.

This idea was somehow supported by Humphreys and Ruseski (2011). In their studies they found that the likelihood of an individual to take part in physical activity is positively influenced by the amount of income that individual has. Limited purchasing power can limit an individual from participating in some activities. For example, Demir (2003) found that some students fail to participate in activities such as sailing and parachuting because these activities are reported to be expensive, instead, they are forced by the circumstances to take part in swimming, football, and table tennis activities.

Income is also a key factor if one wants to predict visitors' length of stay. For example, tourists who are higher income earners are reported to stay longer at the destination than lower income earners (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002). A similar position was backed up by Song, Wong and Chon (2003), Dritsakis (2004) and Croes and Vanegas (2005), who concluded that the higher the per capita income the greater the tourism demands. Therefore, it can be concluded that those with higher incomes are the ones privileged to enjoy tourism activities.

Undeniably, the literature such as a work by Fleischer and Pizam, (2002), Demir (2003), Song, Wong and Chon (2003), Dritsakis (2004) and Croes and Vanegas (2005) and Tae (2007), have shown that income is one among the most important factors to marketers and destination managers, especially when they want to understand better the behaviour of their visitors. Other factors such as age, marital status, family size, gender, nationality may cast a light on the behaviour of an individual, but travellers' spending ability, the length of stay are influenced more by income than any other socio-demographic factors. Thus, marketers and destination managers are urged to pay special attention to the visitors' income level when designing their segmentation strategies.

2.7.2.3 Gender

Gender is one of the major factors influencing travel demand (Collin & Tisdell, 2002a). The travel patterns between men and women vary based on the travel motivation. According to Collin and Tisdell (2002a), men travel more than women. Men travels for business related activities while women do travel mainly for visiting friends and relatives and prefer taking shorter distance trips compared to men (Moriarty & Honnery, 2005).

The consumption of tourism products is determined gender wise. Females are reported to be highly involved in shopping (Josiam, Kinley & Kim, 2005). They are regarded as active consumers because they are the ones who choose the destination, indicate the length of stay

in a particular destination and show intention to revisit the destination soon after the end of the trip.

In the area of tourism and hospitality, the desire for vacation varies among individuals. This is because there are constraints that limit an individual from enjoying a holiday vacation. These constraints are either intrapersonal or structural. Women are more affected by these constraints than men (Andronikidis, Vassiliadis & Masmanidis, 2008). Cost, time, fear, lack of transportation, skills, limited ability and shyness limit the women from taking an active role in travel activities (Alexandris & Carrol, 1997).

On top of that, family commitments and lack of entitlement to leisure are among the key factors that limit women from taking a holiday vacation (Scott, 2005). Because of these constraints women participating in shopping, dining and cultural activities (Meng & Uysal, 2008) than outdoors or sports activities such as skiing (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000) and physical activity (Scherder, Vanreusel & Taks, 2005), while men are more active and they are more likely to participate in adventure activities (Xie, Costa & Morais, 2008) and physical activities (Downward, 2007).

The overall findings indicate that gender is an imperative factor to be considered when marketers are making a decision regarding developing segmentation strategies. As it was noted earlier, vacation decision, demand for tourism products, activity participation and choice of destination vary according to gender. Women play greater roles in making travel decision though their role is limited with social responsibilities and other factors as stated above. Nevertheless, this travel group needs not be ignored because currently, the trend is changing. More women are in pursuit of their careers and improving their financial well-being as they have recognised the importance of having a holiday and are more likely to spend substantial amounts to get quality tourism service.

2.7.2.4 Marital Status

Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2008); Boylu and Terzioğlu (2010) have shown that Marital status is one of the factors which affect vacation decision. This factor influences destination choice (Tyrrell *et al.*, 2001). It is important for marketers to have information on visitors' marital status. This may help them to predict one's travel patterns. For instance, Lee and Bhargava (2004) found out that married couples spend less time enjoying leisure than singles. This is due the fact that married couples have social and family obligations that limit their time to undertake holiday vacation (Henderson, 1990), or to participate in sports activities (Downward & Rasciute, 2010; Eberth & Smith, 2010).

Singles, on the other hand, prefer shorter but frequent trips (Biearnat & Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2012). This could be factual that singles are assumed to have more free time to engage in various activities compared to those with a family. Furthermore, single individuals are more likely to be physically active than the married ones. Hence they are more likely to participate in sports activities than married individuals (Downward & Rasciute, 2010; Eberth and Smith, 2010), they are also spending more time playing musical instruments, singing, acting, and dancing listening to the radio, watching TV, socializing with people, going to bars/lounges, and traveling for social activities (Lee & Bhargava, 2004). The literature further highlights that Passias, Sayer, and Pepin (2015) found that never-married mothers have more time to spend on leisure than married mothers. In contrast, Vernon (2010) suggests that married women's have more time to engage in leisure than single mothers. This could be explained by the fact that married mothers sometimes may decide to spend quality time with their children by engaging themselves in both active and social leisure compared to single mothers (Passias, Sayer & Pepin, 2015).

In general, there is a paucity of information in the area of tourism regarding the role of marital status on travel activity preferences. Therefore, there is still a vacant room for researchers to explore the role of this factor from different angles and try to see the impact it may have on visitors' activity preferences. However, literature has given out an interesting remark that this factor is important and if not well addressed may have an adverse impact on the consumption of tourism services.

2.7.2.5 Education

Information regarding individuals' education level is important to tourism stakeholders because such information can help to determine tourist preferences. Mazilu and Mitroi (2010) pointed out that an individual who has elementary or middle education level is more likely to develop an interest to rest and have fun when they take their vacation, while those with higher education are likely to be motivated by the desire for prestige and self-esteem. Educated tourists are more likely to engage in cultural activities than any other activities.

Educated individuals' engages more in exercise when enjoying their leisure time (Wardle & Steptoe, 2003). This target group is believed to be well financially, which in turn offers them an opportunity to participate in expensive leisure activities. Education is a key component to visitors, especially when they are about to make a travel decision. The development of science and technology has caused major changes in various economic sectors including tourism. With the evolution of the internet and World Wide Web, tourists are aware of what is happening all over the world. The current technology does not obligate travellers to visit a TA for a ticket, or accommodation booking. All can be done quickly and securely on the internet. However, it is assumed that to be competent in the use of online services requires an individual to have a certain level of education. Thus, there is a big chance that more educated travellers will have greater access to travel information than the non-educated ones. This

information is important for the travellers to have enough details of their trip in order to reduce risks if any. Some of the risks may include limited budget, unfamiliar environment, and culture. Thus, individuals who are educated are more likely to travel frequently to new destinations compared to those who are un-educated.

2.7.2.6 Race

Ethnicity is another crucial factor that is used to predict travel patterns and a destination choice. Many researchers have extensively studied the contribution of the race on the choice of activities. For instance, Kolb (2002) reports that people from different race do engage in different activities, for instance, African-Americans have an interest in listening to classical music on TV or radio but not attending live shows. Whites, on the other hand, prefer visiting museums and watching ballet music. While, Asian-Americans have a desire of watching opera and Hispanics prefer dance activities.

The difference in activity involvement was also revealed when Josiam, Kinley and Kim (2005) examined the behaviour of shoppers in the USA. It was found that White Americans, were reported to be the medium involvers compared to African-Americans. In the same field of research, Floyd *et al.* (1994) found that race is one of the determining factors that affect leisure choice. However, in their study, they came up with different findings compared to Kolb's (2002). They found a similarity in terms of leisure choice between Blacks and Whites who belonged to the same class. For example, for those who are in middle-class groups show interest in bowling and basketball while those belonging to a poor society participate in fishing activities. Although, race plays a significant role in understanding visitors' travel behaviour, factors such as fear of violence, limited financial resources, and racial segregation have also been identified to be among factors affecting an individual from taking part in a given activity (Lee, Scott & Floyd, 2001; Floyd *et al.*, 2007).

2.7.2.7 Nationality

Information regarding visitors' nationality is important to destination managers and marketers because such information may help them figure out more about visitors' travel behaviour. Such information can be employed to assess visitor spending ability, determine their satisfaction level, and predict the likelihood of revisiting a given destination (Mykletun, Crofts & Mykletun, 2001). It also determines visitors' length of stay (Gokovali, Bahar & Kazak, 2007) and predicts tourist destination choice (Nicholau & Mas, 2004).

Although the effects of globalisation and intra- cultural issues may affect the analysis of nationality studies as pointed out by Dann (1993), an understanding of visitors' nationality may provide a holistic picture about travellers' behaviour. Visitors from different nations differ in terms of nature experience. For instance, Vespestad and Mehmeloglu (2010) found that visitors from collective nationalities prefer entertainment while those from individualistic nationalities show interest in hiking.

2.7.2.8 Occupation

Knowledge regarding visitors' occupation is vital to tourism service providers. This is because such information can be used to design special packages that will suit a particular market. However, the amount of free time and the nature of the job that an individual has might have an impact on individual's decision to take a vacation and in turn may affect one's choice of activity. Past studies have found that there is a connection between participation in physical activity and job characteristics. Workers from different occupations may face challenges or stress related to their job differently, in turn, pushes their desire to pursue various physical activities. This findings conquer with the finding of Cheah and Poh (2014) who suggesting that unemployed individuals are less likely to be physically active than employed individuals. This is because unemployed individuals have less work

responsibilities, hence they live a relaxed lifestyle and in the end they would be physically inactive (Domelen *et al.*, 2011).

Although there is limited information regarding the relationship between visitors' occupation and tourist activity, it may be assumed that an individual's professional work may at times push an individual towards choosing a particular destination or activity. For instance, instructors may be intellectually motivated to visit museums and attend festival cultural activities while an athlete may be highly motivated with beach, mountain climbing, rafting and scuba diving activities. A good justification to this is from Richards (1996 cited in Richards, 2002) whose argument is that individuals who work in arts-related activities are more likely to be interested in cultural activities such as art paintings, festival events, museum, historical sites and music events. The overall observation indicates that despite the fact that occupation is important, more has to be done to reveal the role of this factor in the tourism industry. This is because there is limited literature that has dealt with the link between this factor and travel activities. This study intended to this gap.

2.7.2.9 Family Size

Family size has been reported to have an impact on vacation decision (Nicolau & Mas, 2004). Children, on the other hand, play a great role in making family vacation decision as they offer an opinion about what they want to purchase, though their influence is limited with the financial ability (Nickerson & Jurowski, 2001). Nowadays, a family vacation is reported to be affected by the changes of family life cycle patterns (Collin & Tisdell 2002a; 2002b). For example, single parents with children are less likely to take overseas trip compared to families without children. This is because single parents' priority is to ensure that they provide basic requirements to their families.

Women are reported to take their vacation either before they have children or after their children have become independent (Collins & Tisdell, 2002b). This is because time spent caring for children and relatives and the type of family structure which involves children reduces the opportunities for parents to engage in activities such as sports (Ruseski *et al.*, 2011). The literature has further identified that sometimes participation of children in sport or physical activities is influenced by the role played by their parents. Children would be actively involved in sports if their parents and siblings also participate (Coleman, Cox & Roker, 2008).

Thus, it is clearly indicated here that family size to some extent affects vacation decisions. The literature has pointed out that gender imbalance also affects family holiday decisions (Collins & Tisdell, 2002a). For instance, during the 1980s husbands were reported to dominate all decisions regarding holiday trips, especially in families with children. However, in those families without children, a joint decision frequently dominated their vacation decisions.

Fodness (1992) came up with different findings that women are more likely to be the dominant decision makers for some families. It is mostly agreed that western couples and families, “women are more likely to be the primary vacation planners” (McGhee, Locker-Murphy & Uysal, 1996, p.45). Similar findings were confirmed by Kim *et al.* (2009), upon examining the role of the family in decision making during festive events. They agreed that women contribute more when planning for a family vacation.

The general observation revealed that family size has some role to play when it comes to taking a holiday vacation. It seems that the bigger the family size, the harder it is for a family to take a vacation except for those with high incomes. On the other hand, children do influence holiday decision making (Webster, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Harcar *et al.*, 2005;

Xia *et al.*, 2006) though their contribution is limited with economic purchasing power (Kim *et al.*, 2009).

At times a joint decision is made by family members, but more frequently women are the most influential members as far as the decision regarding family holiday trip is concerned. They are the champions when it comes to the initiation of the vacation idea, the ones who search for all the details of the destination to be visited (Mottiar & Quinn, 2004) whilst, men are reported to take lead in the final stages that is, purchasing of tickets and paying for accommodation (Belch & Willis, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Wang, Chen & Chou, 2007).

Although a number of demographic factors have been discussed in subsection 2.7.2, for the purpose of this study, only occupation, family size (in terms of a number of children) and marital status were included in the analysis. The reason for including these factors is due to the fact that there is limited information regarding the connection between these factors and travel activities.

Furthermore, the role of demographic factors in behavioural studies is frequently taken for granted, partly because they are reported to be less effective in predicting tourists' behaviour compared with lifestyle variables (Woodside & Pitts, 1976; Johns & Gyimóthy, 2002; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004a). In Tanzania, tourism organizations such as Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) and tourism stakeholders such as Travel Agents (TAs) and Tour Operators (TOs) have been collecting demographic information yearly aimed at profiling tourist characteristics.

Despite the fact that researchers have questioned the use of demographic factors, these factors are important if they are used wisely and they can provide meaningful and relevant information (Shih, 1986). Such information can be used by tourism stakeholders in decision

making, especially in the development of advertising campaigns and in the selection of media channels for targeting particular groups (Mazilu & Mitroi, 2010). Therefore, this shows that demographic factors tell more than just providing personal details. It is wise to take into consideration the role of these factors when assessing preference of travel activities. Table 2.2 summarises the major demographic studies in the area of tourism.

Table 2.2 Studies on Major Demographic Factor

Author (s)	Variable assessed	Findings
Nickerson & Murkowski (2001)	Family size	Children play a great role regarding the choice of vacation destination.
Collins & Tisdell (2002a)	Gender	Gender is a major factor in influencing travel demand.
Belch & Willis (2002)	Family size	A joint decision is made when it comes to taking a family trip; Women are influential in making vacation decision.
Collins & Tisdell (2002b)	Family size	Men made more business and conference trips Women are taking more trips when they don't have children or when their children are grown up and become independent.
Richards (2002)	Occupation	Respondents who visited cultural attractions include professionals who work in culture related jobs.
Fleischer & Pizam (2002)	Income	Income has a positive influence on the length of stay.
Guiliano (2003)	Age, gender & income	Age, gender, and income found to be significant factors in influencing travel behaviour.
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Family size	Parents do influence vacation decision and children have a limited role to play in vacation decision.
Eugenio- Martin (2004)	Income	Income has a positive influence on the length of stay.
Mottiar & Quinn (2004)	Gender	The decision to take a vacation is done jointly but women dominate some of the decision at a certain stage.
Nicholau & Mas (2004)	Income, household size & nationality	All the factors were significant and have a significant effect on vacation decision
Harcar <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Family life cycle	Family life cycle and other demographic factors have a significant influence on vacation decision.
Agahi & Parker (2005)	Age	Younger travellers participate more in many travellers' activities than older ones.
Peterson (2007)	Age	Senior travellers under 75 depict vacationing behaviour same with those ranging from 35-55 years.
Wang, Chen & Chou (2007)	Family size	In early vacation stages, women do play a significant part while, in a final stage such as making trip payment men plays a great role.
Gokovali, Bahar & Kozak (2007)	Nationality, education, income	Nationality and income are significant factors in influencing the length of stay.
Andronikis, Vassiliadis & Masmanidis (2008)	Family size & Gender	Intrapersonal and structural constraints limit women from enjoying their leisure time.

Author (s)	Variable assessed	Findings
Kattiyapornpong & Miller (2008)	Age & Income	Age & income are strongly related to travel intention.
Zakić & Curcic (2009)	Gender	Women make more purchases than men when they are on vacation.
Kim <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Number of family size	Women play a greater part when undertaking family decision than men. Children have a limited role to play when it comes to family vacation decision.
Boylu & Terzioğlu (2010)	Family size & Income	Family size and monthly income affect vacationing behaviour.

2.8 Demographic Factors and Preference of Travel Activities

Travel activity is one of the key attributes that tourist consider when taking their vacation trips. Tourist travel activity occupies a unique place in lifestyle consumption, and it is influenced factors such as education, income and occupation (Biernat & Lubowiecki-Vikuk, 2012), age (Agahi & Parker, 2005), sex and marital status (Kattiyapornpong & Miller, 2008). In tourism, a good number of studies have examined the role of demographic factors. However, the aims of those studies have been to profile the personal details of tourists. For example, Park *et al.* (2002) and Chhabra (2007) examined the behaviour of gamblers using demographic factors while others such as Lehto *et al.* (2004) and Oh *et al.* (2004) assessed the behaviour of shoppers using demographic factors. Hou (2012) used demographic factors to profile individuals who visited festival events, historical sites, and other historical activities.

Other studies have employed demographic factors to test differences in activity participation among travellers. For example, females are reported to be highly involved in shopping compared to males (Josiam, Kinley & Kim, 2005). Shoppers are also reported to be old, retired, well-educated and have a higher income (Yu & Littrell, 2005). In the same line, age and gender are regarded as important factors in explaining the behaviour of shoppers (Lehto *et al.*, 2004). Factors such as age and income are reported to be significant in classifying casino participants (Zaranek & Chapleski, 2005).

Gender, education, and age, on the other hand, are reported to be key factors in profiling visitors who traveled to festival activities (Hou, 2012), while factors such as education and income can be employed to predict visitors' participation in cultural events (Kim, Cheng & O'Leary, 2007). Furthermore, ethnicity has been employed to assess its role in travel activities. It was found that White Americans are reported to be medium involvers in shopping compared to African-Americans (Josiam, Kinley & Kim, 2005). Overall, demographic factors are key factors that can be used to classify visitors based on their activity choices. These factors are also important in explaining tourists' preference for water-park activities (Demir & Oral, 2007) and assessing the behaviour of gamblers (Park *et al.*, 2002).

Even though many studies have recognised the importance of demographic factors in explaining travellers' activity participation, other studies have come up with different finding regarding the link between demographic and activity. For example, Moscardo (2004) found that gender is not a significant factor in segmenting shoppers and that shoppers are believed to be old, retired, well-educated and higher-income earners (Yu & Littrell, 2005). This observation is somehow contrary to Josiam, Kinley, and Kim (2005) who maintained that those who are highly involved in shopping activities are individuals with less education.

In the same line, Swanson and Horridge (2004) found that demographic factors are not significant in influencing the consumption of souvenir products. These factors are believed not to be imperative for predicting shoppers' satisfaction (Reisinger & Turner, 2002), or segmenting visitors who visited nature based areas (Mehmetoglu, 2005). Furthermore, Chang (2006) came up with findings contrary to Hou (2012). He profiled the characteristics of tourists who visited Rakai tribal area to be single, young, who have a desire of escape routine life by participating in cultural activities.

Therefore, it seems that there is no consensus regarding the role of demographic factors in explaining tourists' activities. Besides, the existing empirical work presents the evidence that demographic factors can be used to profile and explain the behaviour of travellers' who participated in shopping, casino, historical, water-park or nature-based activities. The link between demographic factors and multiple travel activities in the context of Tanzania is limited. Therefore, the assessment of demographic factors and multiple activities will uncover the missing details regarding the role of demographics in influencing travel activities. Also, the key tourism stakeholders can use the findings to develop effective plans to market travel activities to the right tourists based on their demographics. Table 2.3 presents the summary of demographic factors and travel activity studies.

Table 2.3 Studies on Demographic Factors and Preference of Travel Activities

Author (s)	Variable assessed	Findings
Nickerson & Murkowski (2001)	Family size	Children play a great role regarding the choice of vacation destination.
Collins & Tisdell (2002a)	Gender	Gender is a major factor in influencing travel demand.
Belch & Willis (2002)	Family size	A joint decision is made when it comes to taking a family trip; Women are influential in making vacation decision.
Collins & Tisdell (2002b)	Family size	Men made more business and conference trips Women are taking more trips when they don't have children or when their children are grown up and become independent.
Richards (2002)	Occupation	Respondents who visited cultural attractions include professionals who work in culture related jobs.
Fleischer & Pizam (2002)	Income	Income has a positive influence on the length of stay.
Guiliano (2003)	Age, gender & income	Age, gender, and income found to be significant factors in influencing travel behaviour.
Wang <i>et al.</i> (2004)	Family size	Parents do influence vacation decision and children have a limited role to play in vacation decision.
Eugenio- Martin (2004)	Income	Income has a positive influence on the length of stay.
Mottiar & Quinn (2004)	Gender	The decision to take a vacation is done jointly but women dominate some of the decision at a certain stage.
Nicholau & Mas (2004)	Income, household size & nationality	All the factors were significant and have a significant effect on vacation decision
Harcar <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Family life cycle	Family life cycle and other demographic factors have a significant influence on vacation decision.
Agahi & Parker (2005)	Age	Younger travellers participate more in many travellers' activities than older ones.

Author (s)	Variable assessed	Findings
Peterson (2007)	Age	Senior travellers under 75 depict vacationing behaviour same with those ranging from 35-55 years.
Wang, Chen & Chou (2007)	Family size	In early vacation stages, women do play a significant part while, in a final stage such as making trip payment men plays a great role.
Gokovali, Bahar & Kozak (2007)	Nationality, education, income	Nationality and income are significant factors in influencing the length of stay.
Andronikis, Vassiliadis & Masmanidis (2008)	Family size & Gender	Intrapersonal and structural constraints limit women from enjoying their leisure time.
Kattiyapornpong & Miller (2008)	Age & Income	Age & income are strongly related to travel intention.
Zakić & Curcic (2009)	Gender	Women make more purchases than men when they are on vacation.
Kim <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Number of family size	Women play a greater part when undertaking family decision than men. Children have a limited role to play when it comes to family vacation decision.
Boylu & Terzioğlu (2010)	Family size & Income	Family size and monthly income affect vacationing behaviour.

2.9 Psychographics in Tourism

Psychographics is one of the segmentation strategies. Other approaches include demographic, geographic and product usage (Mohamed, 2005). The concept of psychographics appeared first in the field of tourism in the mid to late 1970s (Hsu, Kang & Wolfe, 2002). Previously, tourist demand and motivation were believed to be influenced by demographic factors such as age, marital status, sex, income, place of residence, gender and other related factors (Pizam & Calantone, 1987). Researchers employed these factors as one of the easiest way to generate individual's profile. Marketers on their part felt comfortable using them too (Wells, 1975).

However, by the end of the Second World War, those factors were seen to be less effective in predicting individual's tourist behaviour. Since then, marketers and researchers have been struggling to come up with a tool that could help better to understand individuals. As a result, researchers and marketers have begun to understand that tourist behaviour can be described better through an individual's lifestyle; thus they started using them to understand visitors' behaviour. The idea of developing psychographic factors was initiated by Kaponen (1960).

Other researchers such as Plummer (1974) and Wells (1975) appreciated his work and tried to extend the idea into segmentation techniques.

Psychographics, according to Reisinger and Mavondo (2004a; 2004b), can be defined as the variables that are most commonly used to characterize consumers. The main psychographic factors that have been used in the area of tourism include personal values, perceptions, attitudes, activities, benefit sought, self-image and lifestyle.

2.9.1 Psychographic Factors and its Significance

Psychographic factors can explain the holistic individual characteristics better than demographics. They provide an understanding of why individuals behave the way they do when taking a holiday trip to a particular destination. For this reason, the assessment of psychographic data becomes inevitable (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2004a). These factors are of the essence to tourist marketers, especially when developing marketing strategies, positioning, and promotional campaigns. This is because they offer comprehensive information regarding individual personality and lifestyles (Wells, 1975).

Reisinger and Mavondo (2001b) argue that individual values, attitudes, perceptions, interests, motivations, benefit sought, activities and lifestyles determine customers' behaviour better than any other factors. Apart from their powers in predicting tourist behaviour than any other factors, psychographic factors are also used to classify and identify customer groups (Schewe & Calantone, 1978; Abbey, 1979; Ryel & Grasse, 1991; Zins, 1998).

The importance of psychographics has been well appreciated by marketers and researchers. This is why there is a broad literature on segmentation based on such variables. In this study, only two psychographic factors were employed personality and travel motivation. These

factors were chosen because there is limited information regarding the effects of these factors on the preference of travel activities.

2.10 Travel Motivation

Travel motivation concept is seen as a psychological need that forces an individual to behave in a certain way. This concept is viewed as an internal force that arouses and pushes an individual from choosing a particular destination with the intention of getting the desired benefits and satisfaction (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pyo, Mihalik & Uysal, 1989; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Some scholars view motivation is viewed as the impelling and compelling forces behind one's behaviour (Crompton, 1979).

Others regard travel motivation as a socio-psychological factor that pushes an individual to a new destination and takes part in leisure activities (Crandall, 1980; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Beard & Ragheb, 1983). To some, motivation involves individual movement towards something (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Others termed it as "some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001, p. 51). This concept explains why a particular individual decides to do something, and how far he/she is able to put efforts to fulfill his/her desires (Dörnyei, 2001).

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) argue that the assessment of tourist travel motivation is not a new concept. Early researchers in this area include works by Thomas (1964), Ditcher (1967), Robertson (1971); Myers and Moncreif (1978), Crompton (1979) and Rubenstein (1980) have confirmed the above assertion. However, there is still ongoing debate over the precise meaning of travel motivation. As a result, assessing one's travel motivation is becoming a difficult task because of the conceptual and methodological problems. In trying to address these challenges, researchers from different fields of the study came up with different views

regarding this concept. Nevertheless, no conclusive argument was reached among the behavioural scientists.

As it is clearly seen from these dialogues, researchers were trying to provide a clear definition for this concept. The definition that seems to be supported by many is that of Dann (1977), Crompton (1979) and Chon (1989) that stipulated that travel motivation is a psychological construct that pushes an individual from behaving the way they do when travelling or choosing a tourist activity.

Thus, for the purpose of the current study, travel motivation can be defined as an internal motive which drives a particular tourist from taking a trip to or within Tanzania for the purpose of getting the desired benefits after taking part in any of the travel activity available in the country.

2.10.1 Significance of Travel Motivation

The importance of understanding travel motivation differs among theorists. For instance, psychologists believe that pull and push factors are key motives that influence an individual from taking a vacation. This implies that it is easy to identify one's behaviour through their travel motives. Overall, this concept is regarded as one of the crucial themes in understanding tourist behaviour (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982). It is one of the factors that determine individual's satisfaction level (Gnoth, 1997; Snepenger *et al.*, 2006). It also predicts leisure participation levels (Kleiven, 1999), travel patterns (Schreyer, 1986; Pearce, 1987; McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990), as well as travel decisions and consumption behaviour (Gee, Choy & Makens, 1984).

In addition, having knowledge of tourist travel motivation can help tourism companies to develop effective business plans, policies and strategies to maintain and expand their

business. Companies can employ such information to determine what aspect of their destination attracts visitors and in the end to develop the better way of satisfying their visitor's needs.

2.10.2 Nature of Travel Motivation

It is reported that travel motivation is an abstract concept. This concept is different from other terms such as objectives and reasons of travel. It is also considered that having knowledge of this concept is one step forward towards understanding tourist behaviour. In short, travel motivation is a concept which is believed to have the following traits: It represents an individual inner needs or goals than just revealing a reason for travel. It also helps to predict travel behaviour.

However, the effect of one's travel motivation generally takes a long time to be determined. This is because the actual travel behaviour can be induced by motives created a long time ago. Thus, travel motivation is a multi-dimensional concept, which means it can be measured using multiple attributes such as push and pull factors. It is generally understood that travellers can be motivated by more than one attribute when visiting a particular destination. Motives are flexible; they change all the time. These changes are reflected based on the changes in one's life span and family life cycle.

Despite the complexity of travel motivation concept, the information generated out of it helps researchers and marketers to predict an individual's travel behaviour. It also helps to predict future demand and possibly assesses individuals' satisfaction patterns. In addition, visitors' travel motives need to be frequently assessed since an individual's motive today may not be important tomorrow.

2.10.3 Travel Motives

The complex nature of travel motivation has helped many researchers to come up with different views on travel motives. However, the central themes behind it revolve around push and pull factors/motives. The concept of push and pull factors have been widely discussed and accepted as two key dimensions in assessing ones' travel motivation (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979). Pull factors are those factors that attract tourist to visit a particular destination. These factors include the availability of beaches, historical, natural, and even man-made attractions. In short, and these factors can be regarded as external driving motives. While on the other hand, push factors include those which force an individual to take a trip to a particular destination. For examples, the need for relaxation, escape, health, social interaction, self-exploration, and status.

Between the two travel motives, tourism researcher's regard pull factors as crucial motives compared with push factors, while psychologists put more emphasis on push factors. The debate regarding the importance of these factors prompted Crompton (1979) and Dann (1981) to conclude that both factors are important if they are employed together in understanding travellers' decision to travel, although their importance can be revealed at different stages of the travel decision.

These researchers further argued that push factors originate from an individuals' countrys' of origin, which means they are the ones which force someone to take a trip to another destination. Hence, they are regarded as the initial stimulating attributes and since pull factors are the ones which attract someone to a particular destination they are then regarded as the reinforcing factors at the second stage. In short, it can be concluded that push factors are important factors, though they become meaningful when they are combined with pull factors. The combination of these factors can determine the actual travelling decision.

Due to the importance of these two factors, researchers from different fields such as sociology, tourism and psychology developed different sets of travel motives. Gray (1970) established wanderlust and sun lust as pulling factors. The former factor implies the desire for novelty, while the latter includes the desire for destination attractions (Crompton, 1979). Apart from wanderlust and sun lust, Dann (1977) established anomie and ego-enhancement needs.

Dann (1977) believes that traditionally, people unwillingly lived in an anomic society and this situation pushed them to search for social interaction. At that time, they realised that they live in an isolated environment; hence they saw the need to travel away from home to an exotic destination to seeking a desirable and comfortable place to avoid the feeling of isolation and loneliness. During that time people were anxious to boost their ego status. The importance of Dann's travel motivations was appreciated and well represented as escaping/seeking motives by Iso-Ahola (1982).

Researchers such as Crompton (1979) believe that the combination of socio-psychological factors (push factors) and cultural factors (pull factors) can be used to understand an individual's travel motivation. Factors such as the desire to escape from a perceived mundane environment, self-exploration, relaxation, regression, prestige/status, enhancement of kinship relationships and the need for social interaction are considered as push motives, while the desire for novelty and learning are regarded as the pulling factors.

Apart from the motives that were developed by Crompton in 1979, Epperson (1983) decided to add two more motives; which are the desire for challenge and adventure.

Leiper (1984) adds that the tendency of experiencing leisure involves a temporary movement, where people prefer to escape and seek for a destination where they can get the desired

experience. While Leiper (1984) concurs with Iso-Ahola (1982) that tourism is more escape-oriented than seeking oriented. This implies as many researchers believe that people travel for relaxation (caused by stress and tension), rest (caused by mental or physical fatigue) and entertainment (caused by boredom).

Despite the fact that individuals are travelling because they want to escape their routine stressing life and desire for social recognition, Krippendorf (1987) reports that the need for recuperation and regeneration, communication, freedom and determination, happiness and desire to learn new things are among factors that can drive someone to take a vacation. Overall, the above researchers insisted that individuals are travelling because they want to escape their routine stressful life, or because they want to learn new things or to be recognized by others.

However, these researchers ignore the fact that some people might take a trip because they want to compensate for the deficit they incur in their daily lives. Individual can suffer from social deficit (limited social contacts), climatic deficit (desire for the sun and warm climate), activity deficit (urge to engage in tourist activities); experience deficit (desire for discovery), enjoyment deficit (urge for luxury, entertainment and prestige) and freedom deficit (need to be free).

Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) set the foundation for people to have an understanding of the various travel motives. Other researchers were only expanding their ideas and were trying to look for a better way to explain the key motives that drive people to take a vacation. In doing that, McIntosh and Goeldner (1990) decided to sum up all the motives into four categories, namely the desire for physical needs (such as rest, health), cultural motives (desire to expand knowledge by learning about other peoples' lifestyles), interpersonal needs (feeling

of meeting new people) and status (desire for attention, reputation). Other motives are summarized in Table 2.4.

In summary, it seems that individuals' are driven to undertake a trip because they either want to escape their routine boring life and seek for a destination where they can unwind their stress and have a peace of mind. The limited resources such as availability of beautiful beaches, islands, cultural and natural attractions can impel someone to take a vacation to a new destination. When they reach to a new destination, they get an opportunity to meet new people, to learn other peoples' culture and to participate in different travel activities.

Table 2.4 Examples of Travel Motives

Author(s)	Travel Motives
Gray (1970)	Sun lust (familiarity, sameness) wonder lust (different, new, novel)
Maslow (1970)	Physiological (hunger, thirsty & sex), safety, belongingness and love, esteem and self-actualization
Plog (1974)	Psychocentric (familiar, safe, secure) Allocentric (Different, adventurous)
Dann (1977)	Anomie (escape) & ego-enhancement (need for social interaction)
Crompton (1979)	The desire to escape, exploration of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships & facilitation of social interaction.
Crandall (1980)	Enjoyment of nature/escape from civilization, escape from routine & physical exercise, relaxation, social status, stimulus seeking, self-actualization, intellectual.
Epperson (1983)	Need to escape, self-discover, rest, and relaxation, prestige, kingship, novelty, adventure & challenge.
Leiper (1984)	Rest, relaxation & entertainment.
Krippendorff (1987)	Recuperation & regeneration, compensation, social integration, escape, communication, freedom and determination, self-realization, happiness & broadening the mind
Mannell & Iso-Ahola (1987)	Escaping interpersonal rewards, seeking personal rewards(self-determination, sense of competence, mastery, challenge, learning, exploring & relaxation),

Author(s)	Travel Motives
	escaping interpersonal environments & escaping personal environment
Schmidhauser (1989)	Deficits in everyday life, physical & psychological needs, reward seeking, self-indulgence.
McIntosh & Goeldner (1990)	Physical motivators, culture, motivators, interpersonal motivators & status & prestige.
Uysal & Jurowski (1983)	Family togetherness, sports, cultural experience, escape, outdoor, entertainment.
Ryan & Glendon (1998)	Relaxation, intellectual, social, mastery.
Kleiven (1998)	Family, friends, culture, accomplishment, peace, sun/warmth
Plog (2001)	Psychocentric (dependable), mid-centric, Allocentric (venture)
Lee <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Family togetherness, hedonism, novelty seeking & escaping motive
Klenosky (2002)	Pull: beaches, historical/cultural, scenic/natural resources, party atmosphere and skiing Push: excitement, accomplishment, self-esteem, fun & enjoyment
Yoon & Uysal (2005)	Push: Safety & fun, escape, knowledge & education, achievement Pull: Cleanness, shopping, reliable weather, safety, different culture & water activities
Kim, Jogatanam & Noh (2006)	Push: Escape, seeing & learning, adventure & thrill, visiting friends and relatives, indulgence, nature, fun & entertainment Pull: Sun, beaches, sports, attractions, family, natural environment
Morrison (2013)	Socio-psychological (values, attitudes), situational (family obligations, individual), interpersonal (influence of family members, friends or leaders' opinion), awareness (knowledge of destination), destination image, destination products (attractions, events, experience), marketing promotional communications, past experience & culture
Leong <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Rich heritage & history, interesting architecture, famous historic monuments, experience exotic cultural atmosphere, beautiful resort, sandy beaches & entertainment
Naidoo <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Push: Seek for new sensation, relieve from routine life & stress, relaxation & refreshment Pull: Better health, higher income, more free time, promotional packages
Park, Lee & Miller (2015)	Push: Knowledge & fun, relaxation & escape, shopping & nightlife Pull: Exciting & relaxing, cultural attractions, gambling & entertainment & famous destination

2.10.4 Beard and Ragheb Travel Motivation Theory

Beard and Ragheb (1983) developed the Leisure Motivation variables based on the idea from the work of Maslow (1970). Leisure Motivation theory contains four major travel motives which determine satisfaction that a visitor may gain from taking part in leisure activities. The revised items were further tested using 65 students to see any missing reliable information. After the second pilot study, the items were reduced again to 103, which were further subjected to a third piloting study to 174 students. After exploratory factor analysis (EFA), seven factors were produced, of which 6 were found to be easily interpretable. Four interpretable factors out of the six were analysed to produce LMS instrument. The factors generated were as follows. “Intellectual” - these include items such as learning and exploring, “social”- covers the desire for developing friendship and esteem of others, “competence-mastery”- involves issues like health and fitness, and lastly “stimulus avoidance”- which simply describes the desire to relax and escape routine life.

This study employs the Beard and Ragheb theory for the purpose of drawing motivation items (or indicators) which represent the latent variable “motivation”. The latent variable was treated as a determinant factor which is assumed to have an impact on visitors’ preference for travel activities.

Beard and Ragheb’s theory was chosen because since its establishment in 1983, many researchers have validated and employed it. In the area of tourism, Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) employed Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) to examine the stability of using the scale in measuring motivation. Mannell (1989), Lounsbury and Franz (1990), Lounsbury and Polik (1992) on the other hand, used it to examine vacationers’ needs while, Ryan and Glendon (1998) used it in conjunction with demographic factors to determine holiday behaviour of tourists. Furthermore, other researchers including Kleiven (2005) assessed leisure and travel motives in Norway by replicating leisure motivation scale. Pan and Ryan (2007) used it to

address visitor motives to Pirongia forest park. Slater (2007) utilised it to highlight the motivations of groups of visitors at art gallery events, while Mohsin and Ryan (2007) discusses the attitudes of Indian students who visited New Zealand during holiday.

2.10.5 Justification for Using Beard and Ragheb's Theory in Tourism

Additionally, Kim and Lehto (2013) analysed travel motivations and activities among Korean families with disabled children using leisure motivation scale. Other studies include those which were done in Malaysia. For example, Hamdan and Yusof (2014) investigated sport tourists' profiles in order to identify their travel motives to Langkawi. In the same fashion, Yusof and Mohd (2008) employed LMS in determining the motives of sport tourists visiting a particular destination.

Furthermore, Liên (2010) examined the relationship between tourist motivation and behaviour on choosing a destination. While other researchers including Hasniza (2014) employed LMS to describe the motivations of visitors who traveled to Legoland theme park in Johor. Dolinting, Aminuddin and Soon (2015) used it to examine how motives and destination image attract sport tourists to spend their holidays in Sipadan Island, Sabah. On the other hand, Sharma, Amit and Priyanka (2014) measured motivation of Indian foreign tourists who visited Taj Mahal using LMS.

2.10.6 Applicability of Using Beard and Ragheb's Theory in other Motivation Studies

In other fields of study, Blakely and Dattilo (1993) employed Leisure Motivation theory to examine leisure motivational orientations of adults with alcohol and drug addictions. Some employed it to assess the relationship between motivation and psychosocial adjustment in young offenders (Reddon *et al.*, 1996). Other studies that employed LMS in their studies include work by Cleaver and Muller (2002) who tested travel motives among early baby boomers and late boomers in Australia, Mohsin (2005) on the other hand, examined the travel

motivations and attitudes of Malaysians who visited Australia. Lloyd *et al.* (2007) examined the association between consumer's motivations who participated in leisure activities. Chen, Bao and Huang (2014) used LMs to assess Chinese backpackers travel motivations.

Furthermore, Choe, Blazey and Mitas (2015) used it to address motivations among non-Buddhist who visited Buddhist temples. Chang, Yeh and Tung (2015) employed it to study the extent to which travel motivation, information search and image of a destination affects tourist intentions to visit an island and Choi and Fu (2015) assessed the dimensionality of the scale in a multicultural perspective. While, other researchers such as Lankford and Lankford (2004), Xu, Morgan and Song (2009), Beggs and Elkins (2010) and Uan, Fung and Ying (2015) used LMS to examine student travel motivations.

2.10.7 Travel Motivation and Preference for Travel Activities

The literature on consumer behaviour insisted that motivation and needs are related (Goodall, 1988). The existence of individual needs is believed to be the key factor that generates one's travel motive. Individuals may decide to take a vacation to satisfy their physiological needs such as food, health and climate, psychological desires like adventure for example discovering new places (Gray, 1970; Plog, 1974), relaxation (Crompton, 1979; Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Epperson, 1983; Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Lee, 2005), learning (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Kleiven, 1999), escaping interpersonal and family problems and seeking for desired benefits (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Mannel and Iso-Ahola, 1987). According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, decision to take a leisure trip would not only necessarily be caused by the physiological needs. Other factors such as the desire to meet new people or need for recognition could be the reasons for taking a vacation trip.

Though tourists travel for different reasons, their decision to choose a vacation destination depends on the availability of tourist attractions. The attractiveness of a particular destination

depends greatly on the available tangible attractions such as beaches, accommodation, recreation facilities, and cultural, natural and man-made attractions. Nevertheless, the desire for these attractions may be caused by intangible attributes such as the need for relaxation, rest, escape, adventure, prestige, health, meeting new people, learning other people's culture and desire to compete (Crompton, 1979).

Apart from intangible attributes, more often, researchers' use traveller's psychographic traits to determine tourist preferences for destination attractions. For example, those who want to escape or relax prefer destinations which offer entertainment activities, water sports, and nightlife activities. Those who travel for social reasons would choose a destination which provides activities such as tennis, shopping, fishing, gambling and entertainments (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Furthermore, visitors who are emotionally motivated are more likely to participate in night boat sightseeing or spiritual activities (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

In cultural attractions such as festival activities, visitors are motivated to engage in these activities because they want to socialise and have a desire for the event novelty (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). To some, they want to take part in wine tasting, relaxing or meeting new people (Yuan *et al.*, 2005; Park, Reisinger & Kang, 2008), and sometimes they feel like they want to spend some quality time with their family members (Zyle & Betha, 2004). Other people take part in this activity as a way of escaping the normal routines of their lives and want to utilise the opportunity to learn and explore other people's culture (Lee, Lee & Wicks, 2004; Chang, 2006; Li, Huang & Cai, 2009).

Apart from cultural activities, travellers are reported to engage in entertainment activities such as casino because they want to escape their daily routine life (Loroz, 2004; Hinch & Walker, 2005), others join it for the excitement, fun, novelty seeking, socialisation (Lee *et al.*,

2006) and winning money (Park *et al.*, 2002). Wong and Rosenbaum (2012) argued that casino excursionists' are primarily motivated by five factors such as novelty seeking, leisure, escape from work pressure, sightseeing and socialisation. However, pathological gamblers seem to be motivated differently, their participation is determined by the desire to win, risk taking, exploration, competency testing, power and control (Platz & Miller, 2001).

To recreational gamblers, gaming is all about satisfying their fantasies, feelings and having fun (Loroz, 2004). In short, casino lovers seem to be mostly motivated by the desire to escape their social life and seek for a place to relax their minds. Gamblers do enjoy competing, winning and taking risks because all these are part and parcel of gaming. Their behaviour differs depending on the type of gambler, for instance, light gamblers are less likely to be motivated by winning, challenge, escape and socialisation (Lee *et al.*, 2006), pathological gamblers put more emphasis on winning, risk taking and competing (Platz & Miller, 2001) and recreational gamblers focus more on having fun (Loroz, 2004).

Going to nightclubs is another type of entertainment activity; tourists do visit nightclubs for different reasons. Some travellers go to the club for personal reasons like meeting new people or hanging out with their friends (Lien, 2010). Others participate in nightlife activities because they want to escape their routine work life and prefer to relax (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Literature has identified that young travellers are more likely to take part in this activity because they are usually seeking for vacations that satisfy their hedonic desires.

In the area of national park and natural reserve areas, visitors have been going to these areas for multiple reasons. For example, escapists are visiting these areas due to their desire to escape and relax, while spiritualists are motivated by the need to learn and to boost their self-esteem (Beh & Bruyere, 2007). Thus travellers generally participate in the same activity for different reasons. At times, they have a tendency of visiting the same destination for different

reasons. For example, Kozak (2002) found that sometimes visitors may decide to visit a particular destination in summer for the sake of relaxing; while others may visit the same destination in winter for the purpose of enjoying an adventurous life. However, it should be noted that it is not necessary for visitors who engaged in same activity to have different motives; sometimes they may be forced to engage in the same activity for the same motive. This is somewhat justified by Kruger and Saayman (2010) who found that visitors that traveled to Kruger national park had similar travel motives.

Apart from national parks, shopping is one of the travel activities that are hardly considered as key travel motives. MacCannell, (2002) and Timothy (2005), reports it to be an important travel activity. To some people, no trip is complete without going shopping (Kent, Schock, & Snow, 1983 cited in Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Previous studies have also indicated that tourists do spend a lot on shopping than on food, accommodation or entertainment activities (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). The overall literature on shopping indicates that shoppers are motivated by their desire for self-esteem (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2009). Some are attracted to shop because of their culture, for example, Chinese travellers are engaging in this activity because of their culture for gift giving (Moscardo, 2004; Guo *et al.*, 2009). Others have a passion for experiencing the authenticity of the community they are visiting. Those who are culturally motivated do involve in purchasing of crafts, postcards, local food and books about the destination they visited (Litrell *et al.*, 1994), while those who are motivated by the urban entertainments prefer purchasing things such as T-shirts, bumper stickers and other mementos that show the origin of the destination they visited.

In addition to that, shoppers are also reported to be motivated by the desire to socialise with friends and family members (Jones, 1999; Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002; Moscardo, 2004), having fun (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000) and enjoying and relaxing (Bussey,

1987; Moscardo, 2004). Other researchers such as Jansen-Verbeke (1994) concluded that shoppers generally have a desire to take advantage of the unique products, discounting prices, reasonable exchange rate, and purchasing of products that show the origin of the destination visited.

For outdoor activities, changes in the demographic, socio-economic factors and technology played a major role in influencing individual's to take part in the activities. Moreover, increasing free time and disposable income have provided people with an opportunity to take part in outdoor activities (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1993). Worldwide, it is believed that individuals' participation in leisure activities is greatly influenced by the changes in demographic factors such as age and family structure (Foot, 2004). Furthermore, the growing changes in the employment and work systems have caused an increase in the number of individuals who are self-employed. These individuals have ample time to take part in travel activities compared to those who have fixed working schedule.

Initially, people had a different attitude regarding the importance of outdoor activities. During that time, outdoor activities were perceived to be dangerous. However, in today's world, people are aware of the advantages of outdoor activities. As a result, the trend of people participating in these activities keeps on increasing day after another. The need for outdoor activities is driven by some factors like the desire to have a healthy lifestyle (Iwasaki & Schneider, 2003).

The influence of media, governments, and culture plays a crucial role in creating awareness regarding people's health (Bull, Hoose & Weed, 2003); as a result, people have started realising that one of the ways of living a healthy life (physical and mental) is to stay in shape,

and that can be attained by taking part in outdoor activities. Previous studies have indicated that worldwide outdoor activities are gaining popularity (Marafa, Ting & Cheong, 2007). One of the reasons why people are taking part in outdoor activities such as walking tours or hiking include the desire to exercise, relieve stress, experience nature and have fun (Kraus, 2001; Coble, Selin & Erickson, 2003). Others take part in these activities because they want to escape their routine life, seeking for the desired experience, being confident and develop the ability to compete with others (Poon, 1993).

People's travel motivation differs depending on the nature of outdoor activities. For instance, hikers are motivated by things such as high peaks, special geomorphologic features and the availability of birds and butterflies. These individuals are also pushed to take part in this activity because of their psychological desires (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1993). Other people involve in hiking because they want to enjoy the experience, and are pushed by the need to escape routine life, desire for excitement, physical fitness, personal reasons, family togetherness and self-esteem (Marafa, Ting & Cheong, 2007).

In the coastal areas, tourists are reported to take vacations to coastal attractions such as islands because they want to escape, or relax for personal attachment (Melville, Elmarie & Peet, 2009), to learn something new, for finding thrills, excitement and rediscovering themselves (Park & Hsieh, 2008). Factors such as air quality, spacious beaches, clean environment, safety, and security are reported to be among the factors that attract tourists to visit island destinations. However, the motives for visiting one island might be different from the motives for visiting another island. For instance, Melville, Elmarie, and Peet (2009) found that availability of leisure activities and novelty were the main motives that attracted tourists

to visit Jeffreys Bay, while factors such as socialisation and trip features were the key motives that drove tourists to visit Hartenbos bay.

Kassean and Gassita (2013) examined the push and pull factors that affect one's decision to choose a holiday destination on Mauritius Island. In their study they found that apart from socialisation, escaping, relaxation and resting, the desire for novelty and nostalgia were among the significant push factors that attracted tourists to visit the island. Special climate, weather, exquisite landscape, and scenery, unique flora and fauna, exotic beaches, nice ambiance and atmosphere, the hospitality of Mauritians and the authentic culture were the main pulling factors.

Visiting beaches is another travel activity. Travellers have been visiting these areas for multiple reasons. For example, Che and Yang (2011) found that the desire to experience a different culture, learn new things and meet other people, the need to sample local food, view the natural landscape and experience historical and cultural attractions were the main motives that attracted travellers to visit a new beach destination. In the same activity, Carr (2002) examined the behaviour of young tourists visiting beaches and found that tourists between the ages of 16-24 behave in the passive/hedonistic way. Carr (2002) that most of them are motivated by the desire to escape their normal routine life and seek for a place to relax and have a peaceful life.

Generally, existing literature on travel motivation has managed to identify the travel motivation of visitors at different areas such as national parks, shopping malls, casinos, beaches, islands, and nightclubs. Most of the existing studies have used travel activities as a segmentation criterion, also travel motivations were measured using push and pull factors. What is missing in those studies is the fact that they did not examine the effects of specific

travel motivations such as social, mastery competency, stimulus avoidance and intellectual on multiple travel activities.

However, only a few studies have managed to examine the role of travel motivation on multiple travel activities. Examples of such studies include a work of Kim and Lehto (2011) and Prebensen (2006). Nevertheless, these studies have focused on either Korean family with disabled children (Kim & Lehto, 2011) or pointing out the appealing travel motives of Norwegians who visited Southern Europe (Prebensen, 2006). Due to the fact that there is a limited number of studies that have examined the effect of different travel motivations (i.e., mastery-competency, social, intellectual, and stimulus avoidance) on multiple travel activities among local and international travellers. Thus, this is the gap this study is seeking to address. For a brief summary regarding selected travel motivation and travel activities studies see Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Summary of the Travel Motivation and Travel Activities Studies

Author (s)	Aim of the study	Findings
Lee (2000)	Compare event motivation between Caucasian & Asians in Kyongju world Expo.	Koreans, Japanese & Europeans differed in their motivations to attend cultural activities.
Platz & Millar (2001)	The motivations for gambling of recreational and pathological student gamblers	People gamble for excitement.
Carr (2002)	Behavioural analysis of young tourists visiting beach oriented resort Cala Millor on Northwest coast of the Spanish island of Mallorca	Tourists between the ages of 16-24 behave in the passive/hedonistic manner.
Park <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Segmenting casino gamblers by involvement profiles	The desire to win money was one of the travel motives that attracted gamblers to participate in gaming.
Yuan <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Identification of the factors that motivates wine tourists to visit festival events (USA)	Wine testing experience, relaxation & participation in special events are key factors influencing travellers to participate in festival events.
Kim, Uysal & Chen (2004)	Identifies motivation among event organizers in festival activities (Virginia)	Socialization, event novelty, family togetherness, escapes & curiosity are among the key travel motives for individuals to take part in festival events.
Zyle & Botha (2004)	Push & Pull motivation of local residents'(South Africa)	Family togetherness (pull), event novelty, information.

Author (s)	Aim of the study	Findings
Lee, Lee, & Wicks (2004)	Segment festival travellers based on motivation (South Korea)	Cultural exploration, family togetherness, escape, event attractions & socialization are the main travel motives for travellers who visited festival activities.
Mehmetoglu (2005)	Travel motivation among nature-based tourists (Norway)	Specialists and generalist differed in travel motivations.
Hinch & Walker (2005)	Compares socio-demographics & motivations of tourist (Alberta)	No significant differences among tourists in terms of motivations.
Chang (2006)	Identify tourist based on motivations	Cultural exploration was the core motivational factor.
Nyaupane & White & Badruk (2006)	Identify travel motive segmentation to cultural heritage (Arizona)	Culture focused culture attentive, culture appreciative.
Prebensen (2006)	Examine motivations that influence tourist choice & activities among Norwegians	Sunseekers were motivated by family relaxation, others (big city) motivated with cultural exploration.
Lee <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Examines casino gambling motivations for a sample of Korean gamblers	Socialization/learning, interest for excitement, having fun and personal needs was the main travel motives.
Beh & Bruyere (2007)	Segmenting visitors to 3 national parks & game reserves Based on their motivations (Kenya)	Escapist, spiritualist & learners, all groups differs in motivations.
Park & Hsieh (2008)	Motivations among island tourists	Tourists had a stronger motivation to visit islands Phuket based on push factors such as reducing stress, learning something new, finding thrills and excitement and pulled by good air quality, spacious beaches, clean environment, good service quality and safety, and security.
Melville, Elmarie & Peet (2009)	To determine the travel motives of tourists to two marine destinations (Jeffreys Bay & Hartenbos)	Escape, relaxation, destination attractiveness as well as a personal attachment.
Li, Huang & Cai (2009)	Motivation of the attendees in a festival event	Escape, novelty, nostalgia & patriotism.
Kruger & Saayman (2010)	Compare motivations among the visitors to national parks (South Africa)	Homogeneous travel motives among visitors.
Lien (2010)	Examine the relationship between motivation and behaviour on choosing a destination and tourist motivation.	Two cluster segments were developed based on travel motivation: The traditional - nightlife and positive-recommenders.
Kim & Lehto (2011)	Investigate tourists' motivation & activities among Korean families with disabled children.	Mastery competency was the core motivational factor.
Che & Yang (2011)	Travel motivation and travel intentions of potential Swedish tourists to a new beach destination in China.	Push factors: Experience a different culture, learning new and interesting things, meeting other people. Pull factors: Sampling of local food, natural landscape, and friendliness of locals, historical and cultural attractions.
Kassean & Gassita	Examines the push and pull factors that	Rest and relaxation are the most

Author (s)	Aim of the study	Findings
(2013)	affect in their choice of holiday destinations among travellers to Mauritius Island	significant push factors. Special climate, exquisite landscape, the hospitality of Mauritians, quality of accommodations was the important pull factor.

2.10.8 Travel Motivation Dimensions

Beard and Ragheb travel motivation theory was employed to draw travel motivation dimensions. Table 2.6 presents a summary of the travel motivation dimensions employed for this study. All the travel motivations such as social, intellectual, mastery competency and stimulus avoidance are clearly presented in this section. . For a brief summary of Beard and Ragheb travel motivations see Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Travel Motivation Dimensions

Dimensions	Attributes
Intellectual Factors	To learn about things around me, to satisfy my curiosity, to explore new ideas, to learn about myself, to expand my knowledge, to discover new things, to be creative&to use my imagination.
Social Factors	To build friendships with others, to interact with others, to develop close friendships, to meet new and different people, to reveal my thoughts, feelings, or physical skills to others, to be socially competent and skillful, to gain a feeling of belonging&to gain other's respect.
Competence/Mastery Factors	To challenge my abilities, to be good in doing them, to improve my skills and ability in doing them, to be active, to develop physical skills and abilities, to keep in shape physically, to use my physical abilities & to develop physical fitness.
Stimulus/Avoidance Factors	To slow down, because I sometimes like to be alone, to relax physically, to relax mentally, to avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities, to rest, to relieve stress and tension & to un-structure my time.

2.11 Personality

The idea of personality originated from Latin word persona, which means a mask worn by an actor when taking part in a drama on the stage. As a branch of psychology, personality originated around early 1920s through a psychoanalytic approach by Sigmund Freud. Personality explains the greatest part of someone's life. This is why psychologists have devoted their time to learn individual behaviours.

Over the years, personality researchers have developed various definitions regarding this concept. Most of these definitions are more related to the mental system, which means thoughts and emotions. According to Warren and Carmichael (1930, p. 333), personality is the entire mental organisation of a human being at any stage of his development. Warren and Carmichael (1930) add that personality embraces every phase of human character: intellect, temperament, skill, morality, and every attitude that has been built up in the course of one's life.

In the field of psychology, two common definitions are more frequently used. The first definition is that personality is a dynamic organization, inside a person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts, and feelings (Allport, 1961). Another definition states that personality refers "more or less stable, internal factors that make one person's behaviour consistent from one time to another and different from the behaviour other people would manifest in comparable situations" (Child, 1968)

The above definitions indicate that personality is something that originates from within which reflects a particular behaviour. It contains the physical and psychological traits; it has to be stable and consistent over time. In short, our personality is what defines our consistent actions, judgments, feelings, emotions and thoughts (Carver & Scheier, 2000). Such information can be used to distinguish one individual from another and portray an individual's unique behaviour. Therefore, it is impossible to find two different individuals with the same personality.

For the purpose of this study, personality can be simply defined as those psychological internal traits which identify tourist behaviour. Personality is used as an independent factor assumed to influence preference for travel activities. This study is based on the assumption

that different personality traits exert a significant impact on tourists' preference for various travel activities.

2.11.1 Significance of Personality

The importance of personality in tourism studies has been used to predict the level of customer satisfaction (Lu & Argyle, 1994), to understand individual's value and preference (Chen, 2008 cited in Tsao & Chang, 2010), to understand how people respond to a given product or service (Law & Leung, 2010), to predict individual's behaviour over time (Woszczynski, Roth & Segars, 2002; Tsao & Chang, 2010), and to identify the product brand preference (Malhotra, 1988; Aaker, 1997). Having enough information about individual personality plays a significant role to the tourism stakeholders because they can use such information to offer better service to their customers (Law & Leung, 2010).

2.11.2 Big Five Personality Theory

In the development of the big five theory, Francis Gattton was the first to recognise lexical hypothesis (the way personal differences are encoded into the language). In Gordon and Odbert (1936) put what Gattton had proposed into practice by developing a total of 18000 personality words? Also, Cattell (1943), supporting Gotton, came up with 35 major personality dimensions that later became 16 personality factors questionnaire. Cattell's work inspired people like Fiske (1949), Norman (1963), Hogan (1986) and John, Donahue and Kentle (1991)

Personality researchers proposed five main personality dimensions. These dimensions represent the broad personality traits which are used to differentiate one individual personality from the other. Big five theory is regarded as an integrative function whereby the dimensions signify various personality descriptions in a common framework. Tellegen (1985), John (1990) and Costa and McCrae (1992) described personality dimensions using

five factors: namely, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness

The first dimension was developed from Eysenck (1981). Hake (1974), Hogan (1983), McCrae and Costa (1985), John (1989) and Botwin and Buss (1989), this dimension is famously known as extraversion. Individuals who fall into this category are believed to be an outgoing, talkative, assertive, positive emotionally, enthusiastic, sociable, action oriented, able to make friends with others and are ambitious (Cabrera, *et al.*, 2006), while the other extreme (introverts) includes those individuals who are not enthusiast, quite, less involved in social world, prefer to spend more time alone and are not active.

Agreeableness is another dimension:-This dimension has been termed as likability by some researchers including Borgatta (1964), Smith (1967), Hake (1974), McCrae and Costa (1985) and John (1989). Others like friendliness (Fiske, 1949) have named it as friendliness, while Peabody and Goldberg (1989) called it love. Individuals who belong to this group are believed to be good-natured, cooperative, tolerant, cheerful, trustworthy, friendly, flexible, forgiving, soft-hearted, tolerant, helpful, generous, compassionate, prefer getting along with others and are optimistic (Brown *et al.*, 2002; Wang & Yang, 2007). The opposite of this is disagreeableness which includes people who are selfish, unconcerned with other people's well-being, skeptic, unfriendly and uncooperative.

Another dimension is conscientiousness-This was initially named conformity or dependability (Fiske, 1949; Hogan, 1983). Individuals who fall in this dimension are efficient, organised, self-disciplined, punctual, and reliable, determined and achievement oriented (Costa & McCrae, 1992). People who are highly conscientious are responsible, goal oriented, orderly, prefer to prioritise tasks, and they are thinkers.

The fourth dimension is neuroticism. Researchers such as Borgatta (1964), Smith (1967), Hake1 (1974), McCrae and Costa (1985) and John (1989) agreed to label this dimension as emotional instability or neuroticism. Individuals with this personality are negative emotionally. They are also sensitive, nervous, fearful, pessimistic, angry, anxious, depressed, embarrassed, worried, insecure, vulnerable, as well as hopeless, and they are in bad mood very often (Barrick & Mount, 1991). While those who are low neurotic are less easily upset, less emotional, calm, emotionally stable and free from negative feeling.

The last dimension is openness. Borgatta (1964), John (1989), and Peabody and Goldberg (1989) termed it intellect. Individuals belonging to this group are imaginative, independent-minded, cultured, original, open-minded, explorative, inventive, adventurous, curious, experienced, conscious and appreciate work of art (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Individuals who are highly agreeable do enjoy new experiences (Wang & Yang, 2007). For a brief summary see Table 2.7.

Table 2.7 Big Five Personality Dimensions

Author (s)	Dimensions	Facet and correlated trait adjective
Botwin and Buss (1989); Hake1 (1974); Hogan (1983); McCrae & Costa (1985) and John (1989)	<i>Extraversion - Introversion</i>	Gregarious (sociable), assertiveness (forceful), activity (energetic), excitement seeking (adventurous), positive emotions (enthusiastic) & warmth (outgoing).
Borgatta (1964); McCrae & Costa (1985); Hake1 (1974); John (1989); Smith (1967); Fiske (1949) and Peabody & Goldberg (1989)	<i>Agreeableness - Antagonism</i>	Trust (forgiving), straightforwardness (not demanding), altruism (warm), compliance (not stubborn), modesty (not show off) & tender-mindedness (sympathetic).
Fiske (1949) and Hogan (1983)	<i>Conscientiousness - Lack of direction</i>	Competence (efficient), order (organized), dutifulness (not careless), achievement striving (thorough), self-discipline (not lazy) & deliberation (not impulsive).
Borgatta (1964); Conley (1985); Hake1 (1974); John (1989); McCrae & Costa (1985) and	<i>Neuroticism - Emotional stability</i>	Anxiety (tense), anger hostility (irritable), depression (not contented), self-consciousness (shy), impulsiveness (moody) & vulnerability (not self-

Author (s)	Dimensions	Facet and correlated trait adjective
Smith (1967)		confident).
Borgatta (1964); John (1989); Peabody & Golberg (1989)	<i>Openness - Closeness to experience</i>	Ideas (curious), fantasy (imaginative), aesthetic (artistic), actions (wide interests), feelings (excitable) & values (unconventional).

2.11.3 Reasons for Choosing Big Five Personality Theory in this Study

The Big Five Personality (BFP) theory has been acknowledged by personality psychologists and researchers in the social behaviour studies as one among the important theory in measuring individual personalities. This theory offers the best representation of various personality traits (Graribpoor & Amiri, 2012) and it is one of the theories that have been extensively employed in personality studies (Luchs & Mooradian, 2012). This theory has received more attention and it has been employed in different fields of study. For instance, Fernandez and Castro (2003) who examined the relationship between BFP and attitudes towards sexuality using a university student sample in Spain. Also, Heinstrom (2005), by using BFP, examined the influence of personality and study approach on students' information seeking behaviour. Fraj and Martinez (2006), on the other hand, used it to examine the influence of personality on ecological consumer behaviour.

In the medical field, Chapman, Lyness and Duberstein (2007) examined the relationship between BFP traits and physician and quantified aggregate mobility using a sample of 449 senior adults in primary care. Fan and Feng (2012) used it to examine the personality of university students in conjunction with their travel motivations for an overseas internship. McManus and Furnham (2006) decided to employ the same theory to examine the role of education, personality and demographic factors on interest and involvement in the art

activities. In the area of human resource management, Kim, Shin, and Umbreit (2007) examined the effect of BFP on hotel employees' job burnout in the USA.

Furthermore, this theory has also been used to describe personality traits in leadership studies (e.g., Judge, Picollo & Kosalka, 2003), in decision making (e.g., Hilbig, 2008), in stress related studies (e.g., Carver & Connor & Smith, 2010; Kaiseler, Polman & Nicolls, 2012), in addressing performance of workers (e.g., Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001) as well as in sports studies (e.g., Allen, Greenless & Jones, 2011).

Apart from the above fields of study, BFP: has also been used extensively in the area of tourism. For instance, Faillant, Matzler, and Mooradian (2011) assessed the relationship between consumption in connection with emotions (fear and joy) and personality on tourist satisfaction. Others employed it to examine the causal relationships among experience, personality and attitude among scuba divers (Musa *et al.*, 2010; Ong & Musa, 2012). Some dealt with the assessment of personality traits among online shoppers by using BFP (Tsao & Chang, 2010). Others focused on examining the relationship between personality and activities among individuals with dementia (Kolanowski & Richards, 2002), personality and experiential consumption (Mehmetoglu, 2012) as well as the relationship between personality, social networking and leisure activities (Kuo & Tang, 2011). The fact that the big five personality theory has been used by many scholars can be associated with its comprehensiveness, stability and its ability to provide rich information. The idea of stability has been supported by McCrae and Costa (1990), Soldz and Vaillant (1999), Roberts and DelVecchio (2000), Hampson and Goldberg (2006), and Edmonds *et al.* (2013) who say that theory has been tested and confirmed to be highly stable. While, Deary, Weiss and Batty (2010) argue that the theory is robust and reliable across many research themes.

Volland (2013) on the other hand, argues that the theory offers a valid picture of an individual's personality profile. Furthermore, the theory has been tested in different countries using different languages and cultures (McCrae, Costa, & Paul 1997; Cabrera *et al.*, 2006). Although there is an extensive literature on personality dimensions, the big five personality theory remains the most widely employed in examining typologies of personality traits (Goldberg, 1993). Moreover, there is a correlation between some of the items in BFP and items in allocentric and Psychocentric theory (Plog, 1974). Jackson and Inbakaran (2006) pointed out that there is a strong association between allocentricism and openness to experience.

2.11.4 Personality and Preference of Activities

The importance of psychological factors in understanding and predicting tourist behaviour has been widely acknowledged by tourism researchers such as Plog (1974). Tourism stakeholders have been using such information in relation to these factors to develop the better ways to market and satisfy their products and services to their customers. Even though the value of personality is appreciated in marketing (Baumgartner, 2002), its applicability in tourism studies is still not satisfactory (Law & Leung, 2010). The role of personalities on activities has been examined by numerous scholars. For example, Plog (1974), based on the tourists' personalities, divided tourists into three groups, namely Allocentric, Psychocentric and mid centric. The Allocentric group includes individuals who prefer exploring new things. They are regarded as adventures and prefer to take part in multiple activities. The Psychocentric group includes those who are conservative, non-adventures; prefer to choose activities that are familiar to them. While mid centric group includes those who are not completely adventurous, however, they are willing to enjoy the new experience.

Other scholars have found the openness, as one of the personality traits, to be related to art experience (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2005). Apart from art activities, this personality dimension is also reported to be positively associated with cultural activities such as visiting museums, concerts and other historical sites (Kraaykamp & Eijck, 2005; Chamorro-Premuzic *et al.*, 2009), shopping and sports activities (Mehmetoglu, 2012; Jani, 2014), hard adventure activities (Jani, 2014). While, those who are less open to new experience may involve in beach bun (Jani, 2014).

In contrast to this personality trait, people who are high in neuroticism are predicted not to be risk takers; hence they cannot participate in adventure activities (Nettle, 2007; Mehmetoglu, 2012) or athletic activities (Barnett, 2006). It seems that individuals of this nature cannot actively be involved in risk activities. However, they can do better in soft activities such as shopping (Tsao & Chang, 2010) or cultural and entertainment activities (Mehmetoglu, 2012). Nevertheless, some studies have concluded that individuals who are neurotics are less likely to be interested in any of the leisure activities (Argyle & Lu, 1990; Lu & Hu, 2005).

Extroverts, on the other hand, include those who prefer to have fun with others; this is one of the important personality traits. The more extroverted the individual is the greater the chance for that individual to be interested in social activities (Lucas, Le & Dyrenforth, 2008; Mehmetoglu, 2012). Extroverts are more interested in many activities than introverts (Lu & Hu, 2005). They are reported to be risk takers and prefer taking part in sports activities. They can do well in activities which involve other people, also have a tendency of engaging in activities for a longer period than introverts (Kolanowski & Richards, 2002), while those who are less extroverts may engage in cultural, beach bun and boating (Jani, 2014).

As regards conscientious individuals, these are reported to enjoy participating in structured, unconventional and predictable activities (Kraaykamp & van Eijck, 2005). An individual with this personality cannot participate in extreme sports activities (Barnett, 2006; Mehmetoglu, 2012), but can take part in camping.

Another personality trait is introversion. Individuals who have this personality prefer taking sole activities than participating in group activities (Kolanowski & Richards, 2002). Individuals with this trait are believed to do well in team performance. They can participate in traditional activities such as hunting or skiing and any other activity which requires cooperation from other people (Mehmetoglu, 2012).

Even though the above studies have tried to examine the role of personalities in activities, there are gaps that the current study is trying to address. First, most of these studies were not done in the field of tourism. Few of them were done in the tourism sector. For examples, Plog's (1974), Gretzel *et al.* (2004), Scott and Mowen (2007), Park *et al.* (2010) and Jani's (2014) works dealt with tourism aspects. Although the focus of these studies was addressing the links between personality traits such as allocentric and Psychocentric on activities (Plog, 1974), or matching personality categories with travel behaviour of those traveling to US (Gretzel *et al.*, 2004), identifying travel personae among American travellers who traveled to different US destinations (Park *et al.*, 2010) and exploring the relationship between big five factors with travel personality among Korean domestic tourists (Jani, 2014).

Secondly, the focus of the existing works focused on experiential consumption (Mehmetoglu, 2012) instead of the actual activity. Assessing the actual activity may reveal details regarding the actual individual behaviour.

Thirdly, other studies such as those of Martin and Myrick (1976), Melamed and Meir (1981), Kolanowski and Richards (2002), Kraaykamp and Eijck (2005), Barnett (2006), Kuo and Tang (2011) and Howard (2013) assessed the impact of personality on leisure activities such as watching TV, reading and so forth, while others such as Yannick *et al.* (2014) focused on testing whether personality traits are associated with physical, social and mental activities among individuals who are 30 to 84 years old.

Fourthly, the sample from these studies was narrowed to individuals who use social network sites (Kuo & Tang, 2011), high school students (Howard, 2013), males (Martin & Myrick, 1976), online shoppers (Tsao & Chang, 2010) and the elderly with dementia (Kolanowski & Richards, 2002). The current study examined the influence of personality traits on travel activities among local and international tourists.

Overall findings indicate that personality traits do predict an individual's choice of activities. However, a new study in the area of tourism is needed to shed light on the effects of big five personality traits on preference for travel activities in the context of Tanzania. Therefore, the current study examines the relationship between the effects of neurotic and closed to new experience personality traits on the preference for travel activities among international and local travellers in Tanzania. The study seeks to examine the actual travel activities and not hypothetical activities as reported by Mehmetoglu (2012). For a brief summary of personality and preference of activities consider Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 Summary of Personality and Preference for Travel Activities Studies

Author (s)	Aim of the study	Findings
Kolanowski & Richards (2002)	Identify leisure activity & length of time & personality USA	Veterans who were extroverts engaged in many activities than introverts.
Kraaykamp & Eijck (2005)	Examine the effect of big five personality factors (extraversion, friendliness, conscientiousness, emotional stability & openness on media (TV programs) and cultural preference (book reading, attending museums and concerts among Dutch population	Personality affects media preference and cultural participation. Each of the big five traits has substantial effects on cultural participation.
Lu & Hu (2005)	Examine relationships among personality, leisure involvement, leisure satisfaction among Chinese students	Extraverts significantly correlated with most of the activities.
Cai (2006)	Investigate the relationship among adolescents personality traits, leisure attitudes & activities preferences in Taiching	The higher the score for extraversion the higher the degree of participation in social activities.
Luo & Kao (2009)	Explore relationship among personality traits, leisure participation & satisfaction	Personality traits of extraversion, sensation seeking were significantly related to greater overall satisfaction.
Tsao & Chang (2010)	Impact of personality on online shoppers	Individuals who are high in neuroticism, agreeable or open trends are motivated to shop online.
Jopp & Hertzog (2010)	Examine relationship between personality and activities among adults	Agreeable individual dislike crafts, physical activities but they prefer watching TV, religious experiential & social public activities.
Kuo & Tang (2011)	Personality, social networking & leisure activities	No research has shown the relationship between three mentioned factors.
Ilyasi & Salehian (2011)	Compare personality of individual & team groups	Individual sportsmen are high in openness & conscientiousness than team sportsmen.
Mehmetoglu (2012)	Personality & consumption of experiential activities	Each of the 5 personality traits exerts significant influence on the consumption of experiential activities.
Howard (2013)	Personality and leisure activities among high school students	Personality does predict leisure activity preferences.
Martin & Myrick (2013)	Relationship between personality traits and leisure activities among males	The relationship between personality traits and participation in skydiving, scuba diving and snow skiing were discovered.
Yannick <i>et al.</i> (2013)	The association between personality and physical, social and mental activities among people aged between 30 and 84 years old	Individuals who scored high in extraversion and openness were more likely to engage in a variety of activities.

2.11.5 Personality Dimensions

Table 2.9 below presents personality items employed in this study. Instead of using all personality traits as indicated in ten point scale, few of them were selected and used in this study. Personality items such as neuroticism personality and closed to new experience personality traits were selected based on the fact that there are limited studies exploring the influence of these personality traits on travel activities. Also these attributes are reliable, as their Cronbach's values were above the minimum cut-off point of 0.70 as recommended by Hair *et al.* (1998). For summary of the reliability results see Table 6.6 in Chapter Six.

Table 2.9 Personality Attributes

Authors	Personality trait	Attributes
Goslin, Rentfrow and Swann (2003)	Neurotic	I see myself as someone who is anxious
		I see myself as someone who is easily upset
	Closeness to new experience	I see myself as conventional
		I see myself as uncreative

2.12 Destination Image Concept

Currently, the concept of destination image has received more attention in tourism studies (Oppermann, 1996) and it would not be surprising to see abundant studies being done on it (Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Chen & Hsu, 2000; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown, 2001; Chen, 2001). The increasing body of knowledge on the tourism destination image should be appreciated from the great work of Hunt (1975). Hunt (1975) is regarded as a pioneer on the subject matter because he made an initial effort to investigate this concept (Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). His work inspired other researchers to

start researching on this subject matter and now it is becoming one of the most core researched areas in tourism and hospitality industry (Tapachai & Waryszack, 2000).

Although many researchers declare that a destination image is an important topic, this concept has received positive attention due to its subjectivity, complexity and vagueness (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2008). Scholars have been debating over the true meaning of this concept. According to Echtner and Ritchie (1993), Baloglu and Brinberg (1997), Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002), no common agreement has been reached regarding its definition so far. On the other hand, academicians have been describing this concept as the set of beliefs, impressions, ideas that others have on an object (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993).

When the concept of destination image is used in the area of tourism and hospitality, clarity on the subject matter seems to be avoided. In fact, one of the tourism experts has commented that “image is one of those terms that will not go away... a term with vague and shifting meanings (Pearce, 1988, p.162)”. It is agreed that destination image reflects the mental construct perceived by a potential tourist based on the impression he/she has regarding a given area (Crompton, 1979). The ongoing debate over the standard definition of destination image has forced researchers to come up with a distinct definition regarding the concept.

While some view it as the perceptions that a tourist has concerning a particular place (Hunt, 1975; Tapachai & Waryszack, 2000), others see it as organised representations of a destination in a cognitive system (Crompton, 1977). Some think of it to include belief, idea, opinion and impression viewed by a tourist about an object (Crompton, 1979; Gartner & Hunt, 1987). Bigné, Sanchez and Sanchez (2001) define it to include subjective interpretation of the reality by visitors.

Sönmez and Sirakaya (2002, p.185) adopted their definition from Crompton (1979) and simplified it as “a mental conception held in common by members of a group and symbolic of a basic attitude and orientations”. Though these definitions may seem diverse, most of them come down to terminologies such as values, impressions, emotions, views, perceptions to represent what tourists interpret regarding a particular place. For the purpose of this study, a destination image is described as the emotional feelings that tourists have regarding Tanzania as a tourist destination.

2.12.1 Significance of Destination Image

Information regarding destination image is a key resource to marketers especially in the highly competitive industry like tourism (Buhalis, 2000). With such knowledge marketers can create successful promotional campaigns and differentiate their destination attributes from others (Yilmaz *et al.*, 2009; Siri *et al.*, 2012). The literature highlights that visitors prefer to choose a destination that has a favorable image (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) and those that create a positive image in their mind (Bonn, Joseph & Dai, 2005). Positive image leads to powerful brands (Hosany, Ekinci & Uysal, 2006). It also acts as antecedent for destination branding power and competes against other brands in the market (Lim & O’Cass, 2001).

The success of a particular destination depends greatly on the stakeholders’ effort to establish a strong brand, understand customers’ needs, expectations, and perceptions, adding value and meeting customers’ travel experience (Tasci, Gartner, & Cavusgil, 2007). Thus, the understanding of destination image can help tourism stakeholders to improve destination attributes by making them more appealing to withstand competitions with other travel destinations (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Paskaleva-Shapira, 2007).

It is a fact that destinations compete based on perceived images (Baloglu & Mangalolu, 2001). For that matter, it is imperative to develop a distinct and impressive image so as to

attract more tourists and for the destination to enjoy a competitive advantage (Gartner, 1993; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Knowledge on destination image can be employed to predict tourist destination choice (Tapachai & Waryszak, 2000), develop destination positioning strategies (Chen & Uysal, 2002; Pike & Ryan, 2004) and to examine the post purchase and behavioural intentions (Castro, Armario & Ruiz, 2007; Chen & Tsai, 2007).

2.12.2 Travel Motivation and Destination Image

The literature on destination image formation reveals several factors that make up the tourist image. These factors include socio-demographic factors, information sources and travel motivation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Socio-demographic factors include age, race and previous experiences (Um & Crompton, 1990; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Information sources are the driving forces towards perception formation (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). The importance of information sources has also been appreciated by Fakeye and Crompton (1991). In the same line of research, Gunn (1972) developed a concept of organic and induced images when describing the image formation process. When tourists intend to travel, the first thing that comes into their mind is to look for information regarding the destination they are planning to visit. In searching for general information, alternative destinations tend to develop that is organic images. Whilst when they start narrowing down their search to specific information source; they are developing what is called induced images.

Apart from information sources, travel motivation is recognized as a key concept in understanding destination choice and travel behaviour (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). This concept does not only have an impact on the destination image formation (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Martin & del Bosque, 2008), but also is one of the major factors guiding the development of destination images (Um & Crompton, 1990; Stabler, 1990; Um, 1993). This idea has also been well supported by a good number of empirical studies developed by Hu and Ritchie

(1993). Psychological motivation factors such as relaxation, escape, personal and interpersonal problems, desire to learn other peoples' culture and enjoying entertainments as identified by Kozak (2002); Kim, Lee and Klenosky (2003) and Yoon and Uysal (2005) are regarded to be among the most important factors in forming a destination image (Moutinho, 1987).

In the area of tourism, numerous studies have specifically examined the relationship between travel motivation and destination image. Some of these studies include the work of Baloglu and McCleary (1999), Beerli and Martin (2004), Ma (2008), Tang (2013) and Pratminingsih, Lipuringtyas and Rimenta (2014) to mention a few. In their findings, travel motivation has a positive influence on tourist perceived images. Sometimes, travel motivation is affected both positively and negatively by the destination images associated with disastrous events such as earthquakes (Tang, 2013).

Other researchers in different fields of study have also examined this relationship, an example of which is the work of Brenda (2007). This scholar examined how emotions and experience in watching TV programmes motivated visitors to Korea. It was revealed that a good number of travellers were motivated to travel to Korea after they had seen attractions displayed in the Korean TV drama. The literature has pointed out that images that are displayed in TV shows can influence someone to take a trip to a particular destination, for instance, Canadians have shown interests to visit South America landscapes and cultural attractions seen in films (Hudson *et al.*, 2011). Mukhamejan, Seilov, and Musabeya (2013) concur with Brenda that TV dramas do play a great role in influencing an individual's travel motivation.

It is clearly indicated from these studies that motivations are regarded as a key tool that assists travellers with their decision-making process and influences the image that they have

regarding a particular destination (Croy, 2003; Nazir, 2009; Stepchenkova & Mills, 2010; Serakan & Bougie, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2011). Literature has also indicated that perception, emotions, and impressions are external stimuli, the effectiveness of which depends on an individual's internal forces (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 2003). It is believed that the interpretation of a particular destination lies with an individual. If it happens that individual has a positive image regarding a particular destination and if his/her emotions match with a travel experience, and the destination promotional campaigns coincide with his/her motivations, then one can say that the individual is satisfied with his/ her trip. Therefore, the role of psychological factors need not be ignored because their contributions together with socio-demographic factors form a complete set of understanding the destination image.

2.12.3 Destination Image and Personality

Knowing the images the tourist's place on a particular destination is important to destination marketers. This is because such information can be used to identify destination strengths and weaknesses (Chen & Uysal, 2002), to promote it efficiently in the marketplace (Leisen, 2001) and to guarantee its competitive advantage (Telisman-Kosuta, 1994). Given its significance, destination image has received significant attention in tourism studies (Chen & Hsu, 2000).

Although in the area of tourism there is abundant literature on destination image, studies on the relationship between personality and destination image are limited. However, few studies have been conducted to explain the existence of such relationships. The concept of destination image in this study is simply viewed as a construct which implies tourist emotions. In order to prove the existence of the relationship between personality and destination image, some researchers tried to assess the connection between the two concepts by examining the role of personality and emotions.

Emotion studies highlight that personality is one among the important factors influencing individuals' emotion over the long term. Despite the fact that researchers have acknowledged the importance of emotions in predicting individual behaviour, less attention has been offered to the idea that emotions can be explained by ones' personality traits (Diener, 1984). It is surprising to see these concepts being overlooked because personality is often defined as the concept which includes thought, feeling, perception and behaviour. This situation could explain why there are few studies that have been done to examine the link between emotions and personality traits.

Extraversion and neuroticism personality traits have been associated with positive and negative emotions (Mooradian & Olver, 1997; Vaidya *et al.*, 2002). It was reported that neuroticism is related to negative affect because neurotics are believed to be sad, fear, guilty while extroverts involve those who are joyful, attentive and self-disciplined. Mooradian and Olver (1997) conducted a study on five-factor personality structure in relation to individual differences in consumption of automobile. In their study, it was found that extraversion was related to positive emotions while neuroticism was linked to negative emotions.

Similar findings were also confirmed by Diener and Seligman (2002) and Gutiérrez *et al.* (2005) that extroverts are more likely to experience positive emotions while neurotics are likely to experience negative emotions. Additionally, Faullant, Matzler, and Mooradian (2011) found that fear and joy are related to neuroticism and extraversion respectively. It was further reported by Faullant, Matzler and Mooradian (2011) that joy influenced satisfaction directly while fear influenced satisfaction negatively.

Gountas and Gountas (2007) also examined the relationship between consumer personality and emotions. They suggested that personality traits are among the factors that influence

tourist emotional states and both personality and emotions have an effect on overall consumers' experience.

Lin *et al.* (2014) examining the changes in specific positive and negative emotions during vacations as well as their interactions with personality. It was found that personality influenced individuals' emotion (i.e., fear and sadness) as well as moderate changes in disgust across individuals' vacations. More specifically, participants who are less emotional showed a higher level of aversion during the middle section of the trip compared to those who are more emotional.

Overall, the findings of the aforementioned studies have tried to prove the link between personality and emotions. These studies confirmed that emotion does play an important role in explaining post-purchasing behaviour as well as in predicting customer satisfaction. However, the focus of these studies was mainly to understand the essence of memorable tourism experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), to address the impact of personality and emotions on post-purchasing behaviour (Mooradian & Olver, 1997), and to examine the changes in emotions and their interactions with personality in vacation (Lin *et al.*, 2014). The current study aimed at examining the causal relationship between personality traits (i.e., neuroticism and closed to new experience) on destination image in the context of Tanzania.

2.13 Destination Image, Tourist Preference, and Activities

The idea of individual preference originates from consumer behaviour models. In those models, destination preference is regarded as an antecedent factor of travellers' choices. It is one among the predictor of destination choice (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). The issue of preference for tourism products has been examined by a good number of scholars. For example, Goodrich (1977) mentioned scenic beauty, the kindness of local people, suitable accommodation and relaxation as the main benefits that travellers seek when they are taking a

vacation to a particular destination. However, Stevens (1992) pointed out that these attractions are important at the initial stage of destination selection.

The final decision of choosing a vacation destination differs among individuals. It appears that tourists from different countries have different preferences for example; Chinese travellers are reported to consider factors such as shopping locations, historical sites, religious worshipping centers, museums, river cruises and theme parks when they choose a vacation destination (Cai, Boger, & O'Leary, 1999). Taiwanese consider destination attractions and destination accessibility as the key attribute when they choose a destination (Lai & Graefe, 2000), while individuals from Hong Kong prefer scenic beauty, restaurants and hotels service quality, visiting historical sites, enjoy sampling of local food, engaging in sports activities and learning other people's culture (Wong & Lau, 2001).

Apart from the above studies, other scholars have decided to extend their studies by examining the role of destination image in predicting tourist preferences. A work by Chon (1992), Goh and Litvin (2000), Sirgy and Su (2000) and Lin *et al.* (2007) are examples of those studies, they found that both cognitive and affective destination image dimensions influence tourists' destination preferences. They added that the overall image is a key predictor of a destination preference. Although, those studies found a link between destination image and destination preferences, Lin *et al.* (2007) found that the effect of destination image varies across different destinations. For example, in the natural destinations, visitors were not influenced by the affective attributes of the natural destination while in theme park destinations visitors were motivated by the affective destination attributes not by the cognitive images that they develop about the theme park.

Yue (2008) on the other hand, established and quantified the link between destination image formation, destination preference, and loyalty formation. In Yue's (2008) results, he found that destination preference and loyalty is significantly influenced by destination image and that other the key factors that affect destination preference are travel motivations and travel inhibitors.

Moving away from tourism destination preferences, some research works have been developed to address the relationship between destination image (emotion) in various activities such as shopping, casino and adventure activities. These studies aimed at highlighting the link between tourists' emotions when they are at different places. For example in the retail shops, an emotional response to the consumption experience was reported to be an important factor in understanding tourists' satisfaction and the post purchasing decision (Liljander & Strandvik, 1997). Similar observation was reported by Hosany, Ekinici and Gilbert (2005) who found that there is a link between emotions, satisfaction, and post-consumption. In the same line, Bigné and Andreu (2004) found that consumption emotions are directly associated with satisfaction and mediate the behavioural intention to revisit.

Within the same consumer behavioural studies, other researchers have tried to examine the role played by emotions in influencing the behaviour of shoppers. For instance, it was found that emotions that an individual experience while shopping affect shoppers spending ability (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982) and satisfaction (Machleit & Mantel, 2001). This experience also determines their willingness to purchase (Baker, Levy & Grewal, 1992) and also affects their intention to do online purchase (Rose *et al.*, 2012). Online shopping like another form of shopping is also affected by individuals' emotion. Positive emotions like pleasure influence

individuals' purchasing behaviour (Menon & Kahn, 2002), their attitude and intention to repurchase in future.

Furthermore, the anticipated emotional experience can have an impact on individuals' choice or desire. For instance, anticipated positive emotion was found to be linked to desire (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), and intention to visit a shopping center (Khodayari & Hanzadee, 2011). Similar observations were also reported by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) that the anticipated emotions have a tendency of increasing intentions, expectations and the desire to perform a certain act even when the effects of other factors such as attitudes, perceived behavioural control, subjective norms and past behaviour are controlled.

Apart from shopping, other studies examined the role of emotions on leisure and hedonic activities like beauty spa. For example, Voigt, Howat and Brown (2010) conducted a study trying to determine the role of emotions on beauty spa and spiritual retreat by categorising them into hedonic and eudemonic experiences. It was proposed that positive emotion is the key component of happiness, enjoyment, and positive psychology and thus it should offer spiritual benefits to vacationers.

Other researchers have decided to address the role of emotions among casino customers. According to Wong and Fong (2012) casino visitors usually, seek for a novel experience that can satisfy their gaming desire. Individuals are reported to have different motives when visiting the casino, reasons such as having fun, relaxing, social reasons, challenging others, winning and personal satisfaction. Within casino, there are gaming and non-gaming activities. For example for those who are motivated to gamble will be actively involved in gaming

activities while those whose motive is to enjoy, relax and spend time with their family members will involve in non-gaming activities such as staying in casino hotels.

The casino hotels as it was pointed out by Kneesel, Baloglu and Miller (2010) are believed to be the place for customers to have fun, relax and enjoy with their family members. Factors such as social and physical environment, quality service and ambience of the casino are among the factors that affect casino customers' emotional experience (Wall *et al.*, 2011; Wong, 2013). If the casino customer develops negative emotion regarding the gaming activities or the quality of service offered, then this will have an impact on their decision to visit that casino in the future. However, if the customer develops positive emotions then the chance for that individual to visit the same place or to recommend that casino to other people is high.

In the adventure activities, emotions also play a key role in assessing adventure tourism experiences (Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz, and Tahara, 2009). Like in other travel activities, consumption of adventure tourism such as mountaineering involves emotional experiences. This is because the activities in adventure life are seen as risky and challenging.

The importance of emotions in adventure tourism has been addressed by several researchers including Pomfret (2006) and Faillant, Matzler and Mooradian (2011). Emotions such as joy and fear are assumed to be among the key emotions that can be used to explain the behaviour of an adventure tourist. Pomfret (2006) suggests that there is a close connection between mountaineering and emotional experience. The researcher further highlights that individuals' emotions are influenced by factors such as personality traits, perception, and lifestyle. On the other hand, Faillant, Matzler and Mooradian (2011) came up with a similar finding that

adventure activities such as mountaineering induce strong emotions that significantly influence tourist satisfaction.

The overall observation from the aforementioned studies indicates that destination image (emotions) do play a significant part in understanding why individuals choose to travel to different destinations, why do they engage in different activities and the possible factors that affect them when engaged in different tourism settings. It is also clear that emotions do affect individuals differently and this is mainly because each individual has a different motive when it comes to taking a vacation. For example, someone who has a plan of taking an adventure trip will have different emotional experience compared to that who wants to take a shopping trip. Information on individuals' emotion needs to be used wisely by the destination managers and tourism stakeholders because such information can offer critical information regarding individuals' purchasing behaviour, spending level, travel behaviour, satisfaction as well as on the intention to revisit the destination.

Despite the fact that previous studies have managed to depict the relationship between destination image (emotions) on destination preference, in retail shops, theme parks, natural destinations, adventure tourism and casino, most of these studies mainly focused on either developing instrument that will measure emotional responses in a given destination (Hosany, Ekinci & Gilbert, 2005) or in shopping experience (Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). Also, others studies examined the role of emotions in service industries trying to link it with customer satisfaction (Liljander & Strandvik, 1997), shopping and satisfaction (Machleit & Mantel, 2001), emotions on hedonic and eudemonic experience (Voigt, Howat & Brown, 2001), customer equity and the role of service experience in casino (Wong, 2013) as well as in online shopping (Menon & Kahn, 2002). While, others focused more on addressing

destination image on natural, developed and theme park (Lin *et al.*, 2007) and the role of basic emotions in mountaineering experience (Faullant, Matzler & Mooradian, 2011).

Since there is limited information on the effect of destination image on various travel activities therefore, this study addressed the effect of destination image on travel activities such as outdoor activities (mountain climbing, camping and hunting), shopping activities (traditional clothes, traditional jewelry, carving products), entertainment activities (nightclub, casino) and sightseeing activities (city attraction, beaches, islands).

2.13.1 Destination Image Dimensions

Due to the complex nature of the destination image, several dimensions have been developed to measure it (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Foster & Jones, 2000; Cai, 2002; Kim & Yoon, 2003; Prayang, 2007). Numerous tourism studies acknowledge the fact that destination image is a concept that can be measured using cognitive and affective cues (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Martin & Bosque, 2008).

The former dimension refers to the intellectual evaluation of available destination attributes (Pike & Ryan, 2004; Prayang, 2007), while, the latter is more related to the emotional part (Chen & Uysal, 2002; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Prayang, 2007). Some studies examined the destination image using both cognitive and affective dimensions (Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002; Kim & Yoon, 2003; Pike & Ryan, 2004; Tasci, Gartner, Cavusgil, 2007).

Even though researchers have agreed that both cognitive and affective items can be used to measure destination image, still there is a debate over the importance of these dimensions. Some believe that affective destination items (emotional items) are best in measuring tourist destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chen, 2001; Leisen, 2001; Baloglu, 2001).

Others are of the view that cognitive items are better than the former items in addressing destination image (Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Chen, 2001). Those who are pro-cognitive items argue that these attributes are easy to be measured compared to affective items such as emotions, feelings, and impression of tourists (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Overall, it seems that to some extent scholar believes that a researcher may encounter few problems when measuring destination image using cognitive attributes (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Dann, 1996; Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997).

Despite the positive arguments raised on cognitive destination image over affective image, the current study examines destination image using the latter dimension. This is because of the fact that it is not fair to ignore the role of tourist emotions because tourists interpret the value of a particular area based on their emotions. Even if the chosen destination is blessed with multiple tourist attractions, the final decision to choose one destination over the other is generally based on how tourists perceive a particular destination. Furthermore, Beerli and Martin (2004) and Hong and Gross (2012) highlight that affective destination image is strongly related to travel motivation.

In addition to that, affective destination items are strong factors in measuring behavioural intentions and the overall destination image than cognitive attributes (Kim & Yoon, 2000; 2003; Lin *et al.*, 2007; Esper & Rateike, 2010; Regan, Carlson & Rosenberger, 2012). These factors are usually measured using the semantic differential scale compared to cognitive items which are measured using the Likert scale. In this way, true tourist emotions can be efficiently and easily captured. Also, the strength, intensity and a broader set of responses can be comprehensively pictured using semantic differential scale (Kothari, 2004).

On top of that, affective image scale is reported to be more reliable in measuring destination image than cognitive scale. This has been reflected in the reliability findings for both scales,

for example, the Cronbach's alpha for affective image scales was 0.75 and 0.65 for a cognitive scale (Yoon & Kim, 2000). Affective image scale's reliability and validity have been tested to different samples, culture and even using different languages (Russell & Snodgrass, 1987; Baloglu & McCleary, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Table 2.10 below presents a summary of destination image dimensions employed in this study.

Table 2.10 Destination Image Dimensions

Negative emotions	Positive emotions
Is dull because it has little to offer	Stimulating because of its culture, history.
Offers unpleasant destination	Offers a pleasant destination
Is boring	Is exciting
Is distressing	Is relaxing

2.14 Justification for Adding Affective Destination Image (Emotions)

Extensive consumer studies have acknowledged emotions to be one among the important researched concept (Richins, 1997). Generally, emotions are seen as an affective variable which is deeper in nature compared to mood (Cohen & Areni, 1990). In other words, emotion is a construct which represents the feeling that a particular individual has regarding a certain object or a particular place. This concept has been reported by Babin, Darden and Babin (1998) to be the key factor in explaining the consumption experiences as well as in influencing the consumer behaviour. Although extensive studies have been done to examine the role of emotions in consumer behaviour studies, limited information is available regarding the role of emotions in influencing tourist behaviour (Sirakaya, Petrick & Choi, 2004).

Psychologists believed that individuals have an emotional reaction to the environment they are living in (Machleit & Eroglu, 2000). Because of this, tourism researchers have brought the idea of including emotions in their study. The need to include tourist emotions arose because of the fact that leisure is seen as a positive and subjective experience which offers emotion, pleasurable mood, satisfaction, and feelings to tourists. Generally, the consumption of hedonic vacation experience involves tourists' emotions (Mattila, 1999), and individuals are consuming leisure for hedonic reasons such as having fun and getting the desired satisfaction (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982).

Destinations are seen as places which offer various activities to tourists. It is believed that various hedonic activities are expected to bring tourists different emotional experiences. Positive emotional experiences create a memorable experience to tourists, and the benefits that tourists is going to gain from self- discovering, learning, meeting new people and from taking part in challenging activities also brings positive emotional experiences and make their vacation memorable (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Positive emotional experience is viewed as the primary component in understanding the hedonic tourism experience (Voigt, Howat & Brown, 2010).

Tourists are pushed to travel to a new destination because of their emotional desires. They use various personality traits such as conviviality, sincerity, and excitement to create symbolic meanings of a favorable destination. Thus, it is easy for them to choose one destination over the other because the favorable attribute appeals to them. Generally, tourists evaluate their vacation experience based on their emotions. Once they arrive at the destination they will try to match their expectations with what the destination offers. If their expectations match with what is offered then they will develop positive emotions. Tourists with positive emotions are more likely to be satisfied also to develop favorable behavioural

intentions (Bigné and Andreu, 2004; Wong & Fong, 2012). On the other hand, tourists with negative emotions are likely to be dissatisfied hence they may decide not to return to the destination they were before.

Therefore, destination managers and tourism stakeholders need to make sure that information on tourist emotions are not ignored because such information can be employed to develop effective segmentation and positioning strategies (Hosany, Ekinici & Gilbert, 2005), to determine the purchasing decision (Menon & Kahn, 2002; Goossens, 2000; Chuang, 2007; Kworntnik & Ross, 2007), to understand post-consumption behaviour (Gnoth, 1997), to predict satisfaction levels (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Hosany, Ekinici & Gilbert, 2005; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008; del Bosque & San Martin, 2008), to predict visitors' choice of destination (Goossens, 2000) as well as to determine the behavioural intentions (Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005).

Destination image was employed in this study as a mediating variable. Based on Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation exists only if three conditions are met. First, the independent variable must have a significant association with the dependent variable, section 2.10.7 and 2.11.4 justify that there is an association between independent variables and dependent variables. Secondly, the independent variable must have a significant association with the mediator, section 2.12.2 and 2.12.3 proved that there is an association between independent variables and the mediator.

Thirdly, when both independent and mediator variables are employed as predictors the mediator variable must show a significant effect on the dependent variable. Previous studies have clearly indicated that destination image (emotion) plays a significant role in explaining tourist preferences and it is also influenced by psychographic factors such as travel motivation and personality. Therefore, after extensively reviewing the literature on

destination image (emotion), one may conclude that there is enough justification as to why destination image was employed as a mediator variable in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

3.1 Chapter Overview

Chapter two discusses the relevant theories that guide the foundation for this study. It further reports the previous empirical works. Theories were employed to reveal the research gaps that this study fills. This chapter discusses the conceptual framework (Figure 3.1) and it ends with the development of a proposed hypotheses. The main purpose of this study was to empirically test a theoretical model, which consists of constructs such as travel motivation, personality, destination image and travel activities. A proposed model was constructed to do the following. First, the model was developed to examine the effects of travel motivations and personality on preference for travel activities. Secondly, it was developed to assess the role of destination image as a mediating variable in influencing the above relationships. This chapter further highlights the brief overview of the interrelationships among travel motivation, personality, destination image and preference for travel activities in the proposed model.

3.2 Conceptual Framework

A thorough assessment of tourist preference guides the success of marketing tourism destinations in a competitive tourism business. The assessment of preference is regarded as one among the important step towards understanding tourists' behaviour (Yong & Gartner, 2004). The foundation for understanding tourists' behaviour is traced back to consumer behaviour theories such as reasoned action, planned behaviour, and customer preference formation model. The implication of these theories in the tourism sector is that tourists face certain challenges when making their travelling decisions. Decisions such as where to go and which activity to participate in depending on the way they evaluate a particular destination

(attitude/emotion). If they believe that choosing a given destination will lead to the desired outcome and if their choice meets their expectations, then there is a big chance for that destination to be chosen. Also, if they are convinced that their choice has been approved by their friends, peers and families (subjective norm) and if they have the ability to travel to that destination (behavioural control), they will eventually develop the intention to visit that destination (travel motivation). Once they travel to that destination they can participate in their preferred activities.

The theories above have not only set the foundation for understanding tourist behaviour but also the base for understanding individuals' preference. The importance of understanding individuals' preferences has raised interest to tourism researchers. Some have tried to address its link with psychological factors. The contribution of psychological factors (e.g., travel motivation) in influencing individuals' choice and preference has been acknowledged and appreciated by scholars. For example, Iso-Ahola (1982), Yoon and Uysal (2005) and Moscardo *et al.* (1996) report that travel motivation has an influence on destination choice and the choice of activities (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Specifically, the literature further highlights that tourists who have a desire to escape and relax are likely to participate in entertainment activities such as water sports and nightlife activities. Those who are motivated socially take part in activities such as tennis, shopping and fishing (Uysal & Hagan, 1993), while, those who are culturally motivated might take part in festival activities for the sake of socializing with others and for novelty seeking (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001).

Apart from travel motivation, other theorists have reported that personality has a role to play in influencing activities (Plog, 1972; 1991; Kolanowski & Richards, 2002; Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004; Kraaykamp & Eijck, 2005; Lu & Hu, 2005; Tsao & Chang, 2010; Kuo & Tang, 2011; Mehmetoglu, 2012; Yannick *et al.*, 2014). From these studies, it was

found that openness personality is reported to be related to art activities (Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic 2004) such as cultural activities (Kraaykamp & Eijck, 2005) and sports activities (Mehmetoglu, 2012). Extraversion personality is related to social activities (Lucas, Le & Dyrenforth, 2008; Mehmetoglu, 2012), conscious personality is related to soft activities such as shopping (Barnett, 2006; Mehmetoglu, 2012) while agreeable personality is associated with activities such as hunting and skiing (Mehmetoglu, 2012).

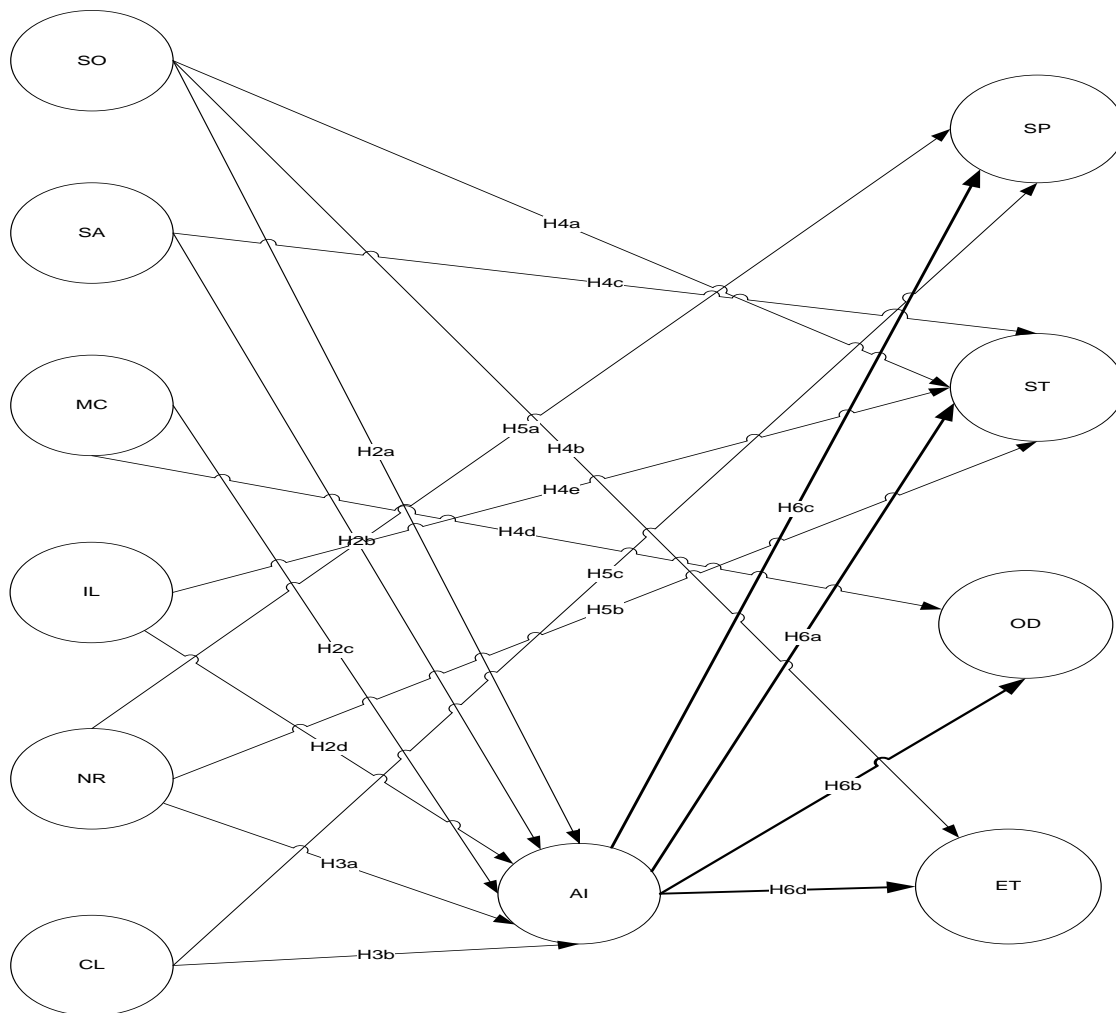
Though travel motivation and personality play an important role in influencing visitors' activity participation, cultural beliefs are suggested to have a role to play in influencing the choice of activities (Reimer, 1990; Wong & Lau, 2001). When on vacation, some visitors prefer taking pictures or visiting famous areas while others prefer purchasing souvenirs (Pearce, 1982). The tendency of tourists to engage in these activities is reflected by the differences in their cultural beliefs. For example, Wong and Lau (2001) suggest that Hong Kong travellers prefer to undertake self-paid activities, while tourists from Asian countries prefer visiting city attractions. Tourists from America focus more on cultural and educational activities (Plog, 1974) while, those from Western countries do consider nature activities as their main key attribute when choosing a holiday destination (Poon, 1994). Though cultural beliefs play an important role in explaining an individuals' choice and preferences, the actual decision of choosing which destination to visit or activity to participate in depends on the way tourist perceive a given destination.

Moscardo *et al.* (1996) supported this idea by highlighting that destination image is viewed as an antecedent factor in influencing destination choice. It is believed that destinations with positive images will have a great chance of being chosen (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993) than those with negative images. A destination with a positive image is considered to be favorable and thus, it will attract more visitors (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) because favorable image

leaves a positive memory in their minds (Bonn, Joseph, and Dai, 2005). It was further reported that destination image also affects destination preference (Yue, 2008) and behavioural intentions (Geng-Qing Chi & Qu, 2008; Bigné, Sanchez & Sans, 2009).

Overall, the existing literature so far has offered the justification for the proposed model that describe the interplay of factors that are likely to, directly and indirectly, influence travel activities. Based on the literature review, the theoretical structural relationships among the constructs were established, as indicated in Figure 3.1. The sequential flow of the interplay of factors influence preference for travel activities is presented in this structural model. At the end, each arrow depicts a logical relationship between the constructs. Furthermore, each linkage indicates hypotheses that were empirically examined in this study. In the following structural model, destination image is considered as the endogenous variable which is influenced by travel motivation and personality. Another construct is the preference for travel activity, that is regarded as the endogenous factor and it is directly influenced by travel motivation and personality and indirectly affected by destination image.

Figure 3.1 Conceptual Framework



Note: SO=Social travel motivation; SA=Stimulus travel motivation, MC=Mastery Competency travel motivation, IL= Intellectual travel motivation, NR = Neurotic personality, CL = Closed to new experience personality, AI= Destination image, SP = Shopping, ST = Sightseeing, OD = Outdoor and ET = Entertainment.

3.3 Proposed Hypotheses

The proposed model (Figure 3.1) highlights the hypothesised relationship among the factors influencing travel activities. The significance of these relationships (H₂-H₇) was tested independently for international and domestic tourists. It was important to test the proposed model independently, for each group, so that proper inferences could be made regarding the factors influencing travel activities. The conceptual model allows the researcher to test

presence or absence of positive relationships among the research constructs in the model. The following section present arguments on the hypothesised relationships among variables.

3.3.1 Relationship between Marital Status and Activity

Marital status is an important factor in the area of tourism; such information can be used to understand the vacation decision (Boylu & Terzioğlu, 2010). In a study on the use of family leisure time, Solberg and Wong (1991) found that the ability of wives' to participate in leisure depends greatly on their husbands' wages. In the same line of research, married couples are reported to spend less time on vacation than those who are single (Lee & Bhargava, 2004).

Similar observation was reported by Thrane (2000) who found that there is a negative relationship between those who are married and leisure time. The literature has further pointed out that singles prefer spending time playing musical instruments, acting, dancing, listening to the radio, watching TV/VCR, going to the movies, going to bars/lounges, and social- related travel activities. While the married ones, on the other hand, do spend quality time with their family members and take part in activities such as swimming, canoeing, camping, photographing and reading books (Lee & Bhargava, 2004). Therefore based on this information, the following hypothesis was developed.

H_{1a}: There is a significant difference in terms of preference for travel activities between single and married tourists.

3.3.2 Relationship between Occupation and Activity

Information regarding visitors' occupation is vital to tourism service providers. Such information can help them to design special packages that will suit a particular segment. Early studies such as Gerstl (1961) and Burdge (1969) reported that individual's occupation

information could be used to determine differences in the choice of leisure activities. The conclusion of these studies suggests that as prestige increases the involvement in the variety of social activities also increases in a linear relationship.

The studies also conclude that individuals are more likely to engage in activities perceived as consistent with their social standing. Other scholars such as Murphy (1974) and Kelly (1975) found that occupational prestige, among other factors, was not an effective indicator of leisure preference. In short, the conflicting findings of these studies limit the establishment of the firm conclusive remarks. This study assumes that differences in preference for travel activities among tourists can be influenced by their occupation status. Therefore based on this information, the following hypothesis was developed.

H_{1b}: There is a significant difference in terms of preference for travel activities between employed and unemployed tourists.

3.3.3 Relationship between Family Size and Activity

The number of family size has been reported to have an impact on vacation decision (Nickerson & Jurowski 2001; Nicolau & Mas, 2004). When it comes to family vacation, husbands have a big role to play especially in the purchasing decision. Their duty is to make payments such as purchasing of tickets and accommodation. In some families, male dominance is strong in families with children than those without children (Collins & Tisdell, 2002a). It was further reported that travel decision is mostly affected by changes in the family life cycle patterns. For example, an individual who is a single parent with kids is less likely to take an overseas trip compared to those without kids. However, some studies have shown that the presence of children does not affect the decision of the family to enjoy their leisure time (Thrane, 2000). It seems that there are conflicting arguments regarding the role of family size on leisure participation. Thus, this study assumes that there is a difference in preference for

travel activities among tourists who have large family size and those with a small family size.

Taking all these into consideration, hypothesis 1c was formulated as here under:

H_{1c}: There is a significant difference in preference for travel activities between tourists who have large family size and those with a small family size.

3.3.4 Relationship between Travel Motivation and Destination Image

3.3.4.1 Relationship between Social Travel Motivation and Destination Image

In the tourism industry, destinations mainly compete based on their perceived images against competitors (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). Therefore, tourism stakeholders need to recognize the images that tourists have regarding a particular destination because different destinations offer different tourist attractions. Tourists have a tendency of choosing a destination that provides the attributes they are looking for. The attractiveness of a particular destination depends greatly on the available tangible attractions such as beaches, accommodation, recreation facilities, and cultural, natural and man-made attractions. Nevertheless, the desire for these attractions may be caused by intangible attributes such as the need for relaxation, rest, escape, adventure, prestige, health, meeting new people, learning other people's culture and desire to compete (Crompton, 1979). Since tourists used their emotions and feelings to evaluate the attractiveness of a given destination, therefore, tourism stakeholders need to make sure that the images of their destinations are projected well in the eyes of tourists. Because tourists travel for different reasons, some travels for social reasons (such as to develop friendships with others or develop a sense of belongingness with other people). Such individuals may not want to travel to a destination which has a negative image because it will be difficult to them to satisfy their desires. Based on this information, hypothesis two (a) was formulated as follows:

H_{2a}: Social travel motivation positively influences destination image.

3.3.4.2 Relationship between Stimulus Avoidance Travel Motivation and Destination Image

Generally, needs have been determined to be one of the tools for understanding human motivation (Oliver, 1997). Individuals have been struggling to find a way to sustain their needs. The desire to satisfy their needs have pushed them toward certain behaviours (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). Individual behaviour has been widely researched using different approaches. The traditional approach believes that human behaviour is clearly portrayed using one's mental ability, while the affective theorists believe that individual behaviour is guided using attributes such as emotions or feelings (Decrop, 1999a). In tourism studies, travel motivation is frequently considered as the key determinant of assessing tourist behaviour (Hudson, 1999). The underlying foundations for understanding tourist motivation have been based mainly on push and pull factors (Klenowsky, 2002). Literature has pointed out that individuals' do travel because they are either pulled by the tourist attractions available in a certain destination or because they are pushed by their internal desires. Some people travel because they want to escape their routine daily life, or they want to be away from their family problems and seeking for the desired benefits elsewhere. If they believe that an image of a certain destination suits their escaping reason then there is big chance for that destination to be selected. Based on this information, hypothesis two (b) was formulated as:

H_{2b}: Stimulus avoidance travel motivation positively influences destination image.

3.3.4.3 Relationship between Mastery Competency Travel Motivation and Destination Image

Although travel decision is determined by one's travel motive, the decision to choose one destination over the other depends significantly on one's emotion regarding a particular destination. When a tourist develops positive emotions regarding a particular destination she/he may feel attached to that destination. The attachment that travellers have regarding a particular destination is based entirely on their travel motivations (Gartner, 1996). For

instance, visitors who are emotionally motivated are more likely to participate in night boat sightseeing or spiritual activities (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999), someone who likes to compete may choose a destination which has varieties of activities. Therefore, based on this information, hypothesis two © was developed as follows:

H_{2c}: Mastery competency travel motivation positively influences destination image.

3.3.4.4 Relationship between Intellectual Travel Motivation and Destination Image

It is reported that individuals' with different motivations may perceive a particular destination in similar ways if they believe that the chosen destination will satisfy their needs (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Individuals who travel for intellectual purpose are more likely to choose a destination which offers historical attractions such as festival events or museums so that they get the opportunity to learn and explore other people's culture. However, if the destination which offers these attractions is negative then it will not be possible for these individuals to visit that destination, but if the image is impressive then there is a big chance that they will visit that destination. Therefore based on this information, hypothesis two (d) was developed as follows:

H_{2d}: Intellectual travel motivation positively influences destination image.

3.3.5 Relationship between Personality and Destination Image

3.3.5.1 Relationship between Neurotic personality and Destination Image

In tourism, comprehensive evidence regarding the relationship between personality and destination image is limited. There are few studies that examined the role of personality and destination image (emotion). In those studies, neurotic personality trait has been associated with negative emotions (Mooradian & Olver, 1997; Vaidya *et al.*, 2002; Faullant, Matzler, and Mooradian, 2011). It was reported that this personality is related to negative affect because neurotics are believed to be sad, emotionally unstable, have fear and usually they feel

guilty. Similar observations was reported by researchers such as Lin *et al.* (2014) who found that personality influenced individuals' emotion (i.e., fear and sadness) and moderate changes in disgust across individuals' vacations. More specifically, participants who are less emotional showed a higher level of aversion during the middle section of the trip compared to those who are more emotional. Based on this information, hypothesis three (a) was stated as follows:

H_{3a}: There is a negative relationship between neurotic personality and destination image.

3.3.5.2 Relationship between Closed to New Experience Personality and Destination Image

Individuals who are closed to new experience are believed not be imaginative, closed minded, they don't prefer to explore new things, they are not inventive, they are neither adventurous nor curious, and they don't appreciate the work of art. Individuals of this nature are more likely to choose a destination which offers similar activities that are found in their countries. Therefore, the image of the country needs to be impressive enough to attract more of these tourists. Based on this information, hypothesis three (b) developed as follows:

H_{3b}: There is a positive relationship between closed to new experience personality and destination image.

3.3.6 Relationship between Travel Motivation and Activity

3.3.6.1 Relationship between Social Travel Motivation and Preference for Sightseeing and Entertainment Activities

Normally a well-developed destination usually offers a diverse range of activities (Mill & Morrison, 2009). Activities are viewed as the critical link between travel motivations and destination choice (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Extensive psychological studies have shown that visitors' motivation has a strong impact on their behaviour (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe,

2004) and the choice of activities (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). For instance, those who travel for social reasons would choose a destination which provides activities such as tennis, shopping, fishing, gambling and entertainments (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Tourists who travel for social reasons have desires to meet other people and possibly to develop friendship with others. Individuals of this nature are likely to participate in any activity that allows them to meet other people. Based on this information, hypotheses four (a) and (b) developed as follows:

H_{4a}: There is a positive relationship between social travel motivation and preference for sightseeing activities.

H_{4b}: There is a positive relationship between social travel motivation and preference for entertainment activities.

3.3.6.2 Relationship between Stimulus Avoidance Travel Motivation and Preference for Sightseeing Activities

Literature highlights that some tourists travel because they want to get rid of their normal routine life or they want to get away from their personal or interpersonal problems (Iso-Ahola (1982: Mannel & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Escapist are more likely to engage in sunbathing, beach activity, swimming and visiting entertainment areas while, those who are socially motivated are likely to be active in sports activities (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996) or festival activities (Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). Based on this information, hypothesis four developed as follows:

H_{4c}: There is a positive relationship between stimulus avoidance travel motivation and preference for sightseeing activities.

3.3.6.3 Relationship between Mastery Competency Travel Motivation and Outdoor Activities

It is reported in the literature that individuals are traveling for different reasons; this is because different destinations offer different tourist attractions. A choice of a particular destination depends on significantly on the availability and accessibility of tourist attractions. For instance, those who prefer to compete with others are more likely to choose a destination which has abundant activities. For tourists who wants to compete may be actively in outdoor activities such as hiking, because these individuals prefer to be physically fit (Marafa, Ting & Cheong, 2007). At times they can take part in gambling activities because of their desire to win, explore their powers and control (Platz & Miller, 2001). Based on this information, hypothesis 4 (d) developed as follows:

H_{4d}: There is a positive relationship between mastery competency travel motivation and preference for outdoor activities.

3.3.6.4 Relationship between Interlectual Travel Motivation and Preference for Sightseeing Activities

Literature highlights that visitors who are self-developed are likely to participate in activities such as visiting local inhabitants, taking excursions, touring the countryside, visiting wilder areas, mountains, national parks, galleries and historical events. While, those who travel for intellectual reasons are likely to choose a destination which is rich in terms of historical activities such as festival events or museums. Intellectuals prefer to take opportunity of learning and exploring other people's culture (Chang, 2006). Based on this information, hypothesis four (e) developed as follows:

H_{4e}: There is a positive relationship between intellectual travel motivation and preference for sightseeing activities.

3.3.7 Relationship between Personality and Activity

3.3.7.1 Relationship between Neurotic Personality and Preference for Shopping and Sightseeing Activities

Given the broad number of travel activities available at a particular destination, individual personality trait can be used to determine the choice of activity. Literature has highlighted that an individual who is neurotic is predicted not to be a risk taker, therefore, cannot participate in adventure activities (Nettle, 2007; Mehmetoglu, 2012) or take part in athletic activities (Barnett, 2006). It seems that individuals of this nature cannot actively be involved in risk activities but they may do better in soft activities (Tsao & Chang, 2010) such as cultural and entertainment activities (Mehmetoglu, 2012). Based on this information, hypotheses 5 (a) and (b) developed as follows:

H_{5a}: There is a positive relationship between neurotic personality and preference for shopping.

H_{5b}: There is a positive relationship between neurotic personality and preference for sightseeing activities.

3.3.7.2 Relationship between Closed to New Experience Personality and Preference for Shopping Activities

The past studies have also shown that individual who is closed to new experience is reported not to be excitable, does not have more interest, an un-adventurous, un-experienced and are not imaginative (Borgatta, 1964; John, 1989; Peabody & Golberg, 1989). Individuals of this nature are likely to take part in activities that does not involve their intelligence such as art related activities, but they be involved in soft activities such as shopping. Therefore, based on this information hypothesis five was stated as follows:

H_{5c}: There is a positive relationship between tourist whose personality trait is closed to new experience and preference for shopping.

3.3.8 Relationship between Destination Image and Preference for Activities

In tourism, several studies have been done to examine the role of destination image (emotions) in various settings such as shopping, casino adventure activities. For example in retail shops, an emotional response to the consumption experience was reported to be an important factor in the understanding of customers' satisfaction and the post purchasing decision (Liljander & Strandvik, 1997). In shopping it was found that emotions that an individual experienced while shopping affect shoppers spending ability (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), satisfaction (Machleit & Mantel, 2001) and determines their willingness to purchase (Baker, Levy & Grewal, 1992).

Furthermore, in the adventure activities, emotions also played a key role in assessing adventure tourism experiences (Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz, and Tahara, 2009). Therefore, all these studies indicate that destination image (emotion) does influence various tourism activities; however, the extent to which it influenced them differs depending on individuals' motivation and personality. The literature further highlights that there is a link between destination image and the attributes found at a given destination (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). This information justifies the existence of the relationship between tourist attractions and destination image. However, there is limited literature that explains a clear connection between specific travel activity and destination image. Therefore, based on this information hypothesis six was formulated as follows:

H_{6a}: There is a positive relationship between destination image and preference for sightseeing activities.

H_{6b}: There is a positive relationship between destination image and preference for outdoor activities.

H_{6c}: There is a positive relationship between destination image and preference for shopping.

H_{6d}: There is a positive relationship between destination image and preference for entertainment activities.

3.3.9 Role of Destination Image as a Mediating Variable

The concept of destination image has been considered to be a crucial tool in understanding tourist decisions (Gallarza, Saura & Garcìa, 2002; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Castro, Armario & Ruiz, 2007). Tourists have been using their emotions and feelings when choosing vacation destinations. When tourists have a positive feeling regarding a particular destination, there is a great chance that they will choose that destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Birgit, 2001). However, the decision to travel to a particular destination depends greatly on one's psychological attributes such as travel motivation and personality. These factors have been used by tourism theorists to understand tourists' behaviour and also to develop destination images.

It was further identified that information on individuals' emotion/destination image can be used to develop effective segmentation and positioning strategies (Hosany, Ekinici & Gilbert, 2005), to determine the purchasing decision (Menon & Kahn, 2002; Goossens, 2000; Chuang, 2007; Kwortnik & Ross, 2007), to understand post-consumption behaviour (Gnoth, 1997), to predict satisfaction levels (Bigné & Andreu, 2004; Hosany, Ekinici & Gilbert, 2005; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008; del Bosque & San Martin, 2008), to predict visitors' choice of destination (Goossens, 2000), as well as to determine the behavioural intentions (Bigné,

Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005). Therefore, based on this information hypothesis seven was stated as:

H7_a: Destination image mediates the effect of the relationship between travel motivation and preference for travel activities.

H7_b: Destination image mediates the effect of the relationship between personality and preference for travel activities.

3.3.10 Differences in Preference for Activities

Leisure is more or less viewed and recognized as part and parcel of travel and tourism. As a result, travel and tourism industry appreciate the role of leisure activity, since travellers while on vacation participate in various activities (Andriotis, Agiomirgianakis & Mihiotis, 2007), with the intention to enjoy, relieve stress and at times to attain the beneficial psychological experience. Activities also offer the opportunity to enjoy physical, mental and psychological rewards (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991) and hence contribute positively towards tourists' satisfaction.

Tourists from different countries are looking at certain cues when choosing a vacation destination. For example, Japanese place family togetherness before choosing any activity, while on the other hand, Canadians and Americans choose relaxation and cultural activities over family togetherness (Woodside & Jacobs, 1985). In addition to that, tourists also are reported to have different preferences when it comes to the choice of activities. For example, shopping is considered to be the second important tourist activity in North America (Goss, 1993). It is one of the top activities among domestic and international tourists in USA (Timothy, 2005; LeHew & Wesley, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2007). Tourists from Guangdong province prefer shopping than dining out or sightseeing activities compared to tourists from

other cities or regions (Chow & Murphy, 2008). At times, it is not necessary for individuals who come from different countries to have different preferences. For instance, Kim and Jogaratnam (2003) found that travel activities of Asians international and domestic American college students were similar, even though they came from different countries. Tang *et al.* (2012) and Manthiou *et al.* (2011) also came up with the same findings. Although there is no conclusive evidence regarding differences in travel activities among tourists, this study assume that there are differences in preference for various travel activities among local and international tourists, therefore hypothesis eight was stated as:

H_{8a}: There is a significant difference in preference for visiting beaches between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8b}: There is a significant difference in preference for visiting islands between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8c}: There is a significant difference in preference for visiting city attractions s between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8d}: There is a significant difference in preference for going to casinos between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8e}: There is a significant difference in preference for going to nightclubs between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8f}: There is a significant difference in preference for buying traditional clothes between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8g}: There is a significant difference in preference for buying traditional jewellery between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8h}: There is a significant difference in preference for buying carving products between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8i}: There is a significant difference in preference for mountain climbing between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8j}: There is a significant difference in preference for hunting between domestic and international tourists.

H_{8k}: There is a significant difference in preference for camping between domestic and international tourists.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Chapter Overview

The previous chapter highlighted on the relevant theories that set the foundation for this study. Theories such as activity-based model, reasoned action, planned behaviour and customer preference formation model were presented to offer an understanding of an individual's behaviour and preferences. Leisure motivation scale and big five personality theories were also presented to draw the key research constructs employed in this study. The chapter ended with the development of the conceptual framework and the proposed hypotheses guiding this study. The following section unfolds clearly research steps for this study. It first unveils the research paradigm, sampling design, study area and study population followed by the procedures for pilot study, and finally, it presents the actual data collection process.

4.2 Research Paradigm

Positivists assume that there is clear distinction between facts and values and between what is and ought to be (Chong *et al.*, 2011). Positivists see reality to be objective, tangible and single and that in the natural world there are no multiple realities. They further believe that natural phenomena can be studied using quantitative techniques because of qualitative studies as they are employed by interpretive lack rigor and validity (Hadi & José, 2016).

As a research paradigm, positivism philosophy assumes that only phenomena which we can know through our senses (sight, smell, hearing, touch, taste) can really generate knowledge. In this philosophy, only objective statements and ideas are believed to be valid and the role of the researcher is restricted to data collection and interpretation of study findings. Generally,

positivist studies usually employ deductive approach whereby pre-assumed ideas (hypotheses) are developed from the existing theories and statistical data analysis methods are employed to either prove or disprove them. A researcher who opts for this philosophy needs to be objective and deal with facts only.

Although the positivistic approach emphasizing the idea of objectivity in social science research, the existence of objective reality in social science is questionable. This is explained well by the complexity nature of social science phenomena. Because of this, researchers have started to debate on the appropriate philosophy to study social science phenomena. Some of them thought that positivistic approach lacks the ability to represent peoples' lives experiences better compared to interpretive approach. Other researchers including Jamal and Hollinshead (2001) argue that the methods used by positivists are not equipped to deal effectively with tourism dynamics.

The existing debate over the role of positivistic approach in explaining individual behaviour has led the emergency of another school of thoughts such as post-positivistic. Post-positivism approached emerged as an alternative approach to deal with the complexities of social science phenomena as well as the weaknesses of positivism and interpretivism paradigms. Post- positivists believe that truth exists but can only be partially comprehended (Riley & Love, 2000). They believe that knowledge can be studied clearly using less complicated methods as opposed to quantitative methods employed by positivists. Furthermore, they believe that a less stringent scientific methodology that combines both qualitative and quantitative methods offers a great chance for researchers to effectively handle the complexities of social science phenomena.

From 20th Century, researchers started using triangulation methods by combining both qualitative and quantitative methods in their studies (Decrop, 1999b). The idea of using

triangulation method was supported by researchers including Harisson, McGibbon, and Morton, (2001) and Pansiri (2005) just to mention a few. Triangulation method helps researchers to overcome the idea of introducing bias that can be caused by a use of a single method or single theory.

4.2.1 Principles Guiding Positivism Philosophy

Positivism approach is guided by the following assumptions: First, researchers are independent of their studies; this means that they are given a limited chance to interact with their participants when carrying out their studies. The minimal interaction helps them to maintain the objectivity of the study. Second, the research should aim to explain and predict. Positivistic philosophy is based on assumption that one variable influences another variable under certain circumstances. The role of researcher under this approach is to discover specific nature of cause and effect relationships. Third, positivistic philosophy is based on a mechanical nature of the scientific approach, whereby researchers are required to develop hypotheses to be proved or disproved via application of specific research methods. Fourth, science is not be interpreted as common sense. Under this philosophy, theresearcher is not allowed to use his/her common sense when interpreting his/her studies findings. The interpretation should be done objectively based on the generated facts. Fifth, the findings of the study must be value-free and it should be judged only by logic. The positivist approach requires researchers to develop ideas from the theory by putting all the facts together and then test the hypothesized relationships using scientific methods.

4.2.2 Justification for choosing Positivism Approaches in this study

Since the 16th century, the work of early researchers such as Rene Descartes (1596-1650) and Issac Newton (1642-1727) have acknowledged the importance of positivism paradigm in explaining the phenomenon in the natural world. This philosophy has dominated the

development of most social science research methods despite its weaknesses in dealing with the complexity nature of social science phenomena.

Additionally, in the past, a significant number of tourism studies has been using this philosophy (Riley & Love, 2000), and currently most of them are still highly influenced by positivist ideas (Davies, 2003; Chong *et al.*, 2011). This approach has been widely accepted not only in the tourism field but also in other fields of study as the preferred paradigm to the development of knowledge (Bob, 2015). Some of the studies that employed positivistic approach including a work by Zeng (2010) who explore tourism labour mobility motivation and Hasanimehr and Tabari (2012) who examined tourism in the city of Anzali.

This study followed a positivist paradigm in order to generate knowledge related to tourists travel activities. In this study, researcher managed to develop hypotheses (see section 3.3) from the activity-based model, Beard and Ragheb travel motivation and Big Five personality theories. Later on, the hypotheses were tested using quantitative data analysis methods such as independent t-test, MANOVA, and SEM as presented in section 6.7.1, 6.7.2 and section 6.8. Some of the proposed hypotheses were confirmed, in whole or part, or not confirmed, leading to the further development of a theory which then should be tested for further analysis. The existing theoretical knowledge and empirical literature justify the choice of this research paradigm.

4.3 Ethical Consideration in this Study

The issue of ethics is very important in conducting any study as researchers need to take into account various ethical issues before starting collecting data. Research ethics include things such as voluntary participation, informed consent, confidentiality and principle of anonymity. In this study, researcher tried to make sure that all the rules and proper procedure for data collection are followed and observed.

First, when developing survey instrument, researcher gathered all the details from key theories such as activity-based model, Beard and Ragheb as well as Big Five personality. All the variables for the study were developed based on these theories (See section 2.2, 2.10.4, and section 2.11.2 in Chapter Two); thereafter the initial survey was taken to four tourism academic staffs who are working at the University of Dar es Salaam and the Open University of Tanzania for them to screen the survey contents. Before approaching them, researcher called them and asked them for appointments. Afterwards, researcher talked to them physically and clarified the intentions of conducting this study.

Researcher asked them kindly to take part in the study. The participation was done voluntary; none of the academic staffs were forced to take part in the study. For those who agreed to participate were given a short brief regarding the nature and study objectives. In the end, survey was distributed to them so that they can check whether they were any missing items, vague statements and clarity in the statements used. Minor corrections were made regarding some of the statements before a survey was sent to tourism experts working at the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources and Tanzania Tourist Board (See Section 4.5 for further details).

After getting details from tourists experts, survey was piloted to few tourists (details are presented in Section 4.6 in Chapter Four). 50 tourists who were found at the beaches in Zanzibar and Pemba islands were asked kindly and voluntarily to take part in the study. A brief self-introduction and a short description of the nature of the study were given to tourist so that at least they understand what the study was all about. They were clearly informed that their identities were going to be treated unanimously during the study and their responses were to be used for academic purposes only.

Before the actual data collection period, it was important for researcher to get permission from the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, Tanzania Tourist Board and from the Mwalim

Nyerere International Airport, if the research sample involves tourists (Evidence is presented in Appendix 7). However, to ensure free participation, it was explicitly mentioned before the data collection that it is not mandatory for the tourists to take part in this research, and they can terminate their participation any time if they feel uncomfortable.

During data analysis, researcher followed systematic procedure that was developed (See Figure 5.1). Since this study followed positivism paradigm, the researcher was forced to adopt a highly structured format when analysing data. Data was cleaned first to check whether there were missing data, outliers and determine the data distribution pattern before starting analysing them (Details are presented in Section 5.11, 5.1.2 and Section 5.1.3 in Chapter Five). Finally, the results were interpreted objectively based on the facts from the data. The proposed model (See Figure 3.1) was somehow accepted because the data indicated that travel motivations, personality and even destination image had a role to play in influencing tourist travel activities.

4.4 Sampling Design

4.4.1 Study Population

Study population can be simply defined to include the entire group under investigation as stipulated by the research objective (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). This is the first step to being considered when a researcher is developing a sampling design (Kothari, 2004). Since the aim of this study was to examine the effects of both demographics and psychographics (travel motivation and personality) on travel activities, then the appropriate population for this study consisted of all local and international tourists, 18 years old and above, who traveled to and within Tanzania and participated in various travel activities. After identifying the study population for this study, the following section 4.2.2 highlights the sampling procedure that was adopted for this study.

4.4.2 Sampling

Sampling is a technique that employs a small number of units of a given population as a base when one is drawing conclusions regarding the overall population (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). Sampling is important especially when the field of study is large. As a matter of procedure, the sampling unit has to be determined before the determination of the actual study sample size (Kothari, 2004).

The major source of the sampling frame for international tourists was collected from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) and National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) database. These Tanzania government departments have been keeping tourism records for quite a long time. Nevertheless, it should be highlighted that since this study intended to examine tourists who visited Northern tourist circuit and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, the list covers those who visited the specified named area above. However, the sampling frame for the domestic travel market was not accessible because there is limited information for domestic tourists who visited various tourist attractions in the country (Anderson, 2010). As a result, it was difficult for the researcher to adopt a probability sampling; hence a non-probability sampling was adopted for this study. The following section highlights more on the sampling process.

4.4.3 Sample Selection

The sample for this study composed of international and domestic tourists whose ages were 18 years and above, who have taken part in any of the travel activities in Tanzania at least once in their lifetime. In order to get a broad range of international tourists' responses from different countries, the data were collected at the departure (international and local) lounges of Mwalimu Nyerere international airport. Tourists (both domestic and international) were asked if they had visited any tourist attractions in the Northern tourist circuit. Those who confirmed that they had visited attractions such as Arusha national park, Lake Manyara,

Ngoro Ngoro crater, Tarangire, Olduvai Gorge, Serengeti national park and Mount Kilimanjaro and the islands of Pemba and Zanzibar were conveniently approached and kindly asked to take part in the study. All travellers (locals and internationals) who were waiting to board their flights was approached and conveniently asked if they agree to participate in the study. Those who consented were given a self-administered questionnaire, which was collected upon completion.

4.4.4 Convenience Sampling

A convenience sampling technique was adopted to get the appropriate sample for the study. Convenience sampling technique was employed to generate samples for both travel markets. The reason for selecting this method was due to the following reasons. First, the use of convenience sampling as one form of non-probability sampling can be appropriately used when there are controls within the research design, which can reduce the impact of non-random convenience sampling by making sure that the generated findings will be a true representative of the population (Ferber, 1977). This study has collected data from the biggest tourist circuit in Tanzania. Therefore, the chances of having a significant effect on the results for not adopting a probability sampling technique are insignificant. Moreover, Madrigal and Kahle (1994) suggested that convenience sampling is one among the appropriate sampling technique to be used when collecting data from the actual tourist settings.

Secondly, for this technique to be used, the researcher needs to justify that the questions asked in the study can be clearly answered using a convenience sample. As stated earlier, surveys were distributed to tourists found at the departure lounge of the international airport and some of the beaches of the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba. In both situations, tourists were found in a calm environment for them to fill the survey without any difficulty.

Thirdly, for the researcher to use random sampling he/she needs to have a complete list the tourist arrivals in the country. However, there is limited information as far as the current database for the domestic tourists are concerned (Anderson, 2010). Therefore, this situation made it impossible to use random sampling technique.

Fourthly, this sampling technique can be employed if the aim is to get quick responses (Kothari, 2004); it saves time, money and effort (Creswell, 1998). Due to time and financial limitations, the researcher required to adopt this strategy so that to get the responses on time. It is one among the straightforward technique of collecting sample (Omar, Abkarim & Omar, 2015).

All in all this study is not the only research to use convenience sampling method. An example of other similar studies which employed the same method includes that of Madrigal and Kahle (1994). They used convenience sampling to examine whether vacation activity importance ratings differed among tourists. Chandler and Costello (2002) on the other hand, employed it to examine the profiles of visitors' heritage tourism destinations using activity level preference. Kemperman *et al.* (2003) used it to predict the time visitors spend on the activities available at the theme park. Suh and McAvoy (2005) employed it to assess the preferences of international urban travellers. Chow and Murphy (2008) used it to examine the travel activity preferences of Chinese outbound travellers for overseas destinations while Kemperman *et al.* (2003) used it to predict the time visitors spent on the activities available at the theme park. Current researchers such as Omar, Abkarim and Omar (2015) also employed convenience sampling to select respondents in the departure hall at Kuala Lumpur international airport assessing their attitudes and perceptions among tourists participated in heritage food as a tourist attraction in Malaysia. Caber and Albayrak (2016) employed it to

select a sample of tourists who traveled to Geyikbayiri region in Antalya for rock climbing. For this reason, therefore, it was appropriate to use such method.

4.4.5 Sample Size

Selection of sampling size depends largely on the statistics estimating precision required by researchers and the number of variables. For correlation study, a sample size of 30 respondents is regarded to be a minimally acceptable range (Gay, 1996). For techniques such as multiple regressions, the sample size should at least be 1:15; others recommend a ratio of 1:30 observations per independent variables in dealing with the shrinkage of R (Pedhazur, 1997). Researchers have been debating over the appropriate sample size to be used for multivariate techniques. Several indicators were highlighted as a guideline to determine the minimum required sample size. First, if it happens that the sample data deviates from the assumption of normality, the ratio of respondents to estimated parameters increases. Therefore, to curb this problem a researcher needs to have at least 15 respondents for each estimated parameters in the hypothesised model.

Secondly, it is suggested that complex models can be tested well with large samples because more constructs require more parameters to be estimated. Selection of a study sample needs to be carefully done because issues such as model misspecification, model size, normality and estimation approaches are all affected by the selected sample size (Hair *et al.*, 1998).

Initially, a sample of 500 respondents was employed in this study, and gathering 250 respondents from each of the travel markets. After, removing all the missing information in the data set a total of 431 usable questionnaires were employed in the data analysis. The decision to come up with this sample size was due to the requirements of multivariate techniques such as SEM. The suitable size for SEM ranges from 100-400. Sample size, as in

any statistical technique, offers a basis for the estimation of sampling error. Since SEM final model is assessed based on the fit indices, poor selection of the sample size affects the evaluation of SEM.

Several studies have shown that there is a relationship between sample size and various model indices such as incremental and absolute fit indices (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1995). Hence, the model and the number of fit indices such as AGFI, GFI, CFI, and CN are considered stable across the MLE method at a sample size of 250 or greater when the latent variables are independent. Nevertheless, one simple suggested criterion that can be used by researchers is to have a sample size of not less than 200 for the study to have a meaningful result (Byrne, 2001). Therefore, a sample size of 431 seems to be relevant for the above-mentioned reasons.

Immediately after identifying the sample size the next step followed was to develop the survey instrument for data collection. The following section presents information on how the instrument was developed. The initial step involved extensive literature review, followed by tourism experts' opinion regarding travel activities in Tanzania. In the end, a pilot study was performed with the intention of testing whether the instrument measures what was supposed to measure.

4.5 Extensive Literature Review

In this study, extensive literature review was conducted to develop the initial survey instruments. A thorough review of the literature was done to develop variables for each construct. Most of the variables for this study were generated from the theories and previous related empirical works covered in Chapter Two. For example, section 2.10.4 presents travel motivation items. Personality was presented on section 2.11.2, destination image items were drawn from section 2.13.1 and travel activity items were developed from section 2.6.

4.6 Experts Opinion

After consulting the literature and develop the initial items as indicated in section 4.2, the next step involved was getting information from the expert opinions. The researcher approached academicians at the University of Dar Es Salaam, and The Open University of Tanzania who is working in the tourism and hospitality department ($n=4$) around 10 am in their offices to cross check if there was any missing detail or wording problem or if there was any redundant item in the survey instrument. Academicians were able to highlight areas for improvement.

The reason for choosing them was due to the fact that they have a deeper understanding regarding tourist behaviour and preferences. Furthermore, they are conversant with the tourism theories and activities that tourists would prefer to participate when visiting the country. After reviewing the initial survey instrument, they were able to make some changes in the introductory part. Also, they suggested that examples should be given in each of the personality items for respondents to understand them easily. They further suggested that double barrel questions should be avoided and split up into two single questions.

After identifying all the initial survey items from relevant theories and inclusion of academicians' opinion regarding the travel activities, the next step followed was to consult the tourism experts regarding the reliability of the instrument. In doing that a short survey was distributed to five tourism experts from each of the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources and Tanzania Tourist Board. These experts were selected based on the fact that they are the policy makers of the tourism sector in the country. They have been dealing with tourist issues for a long time; therefore researcher believed that their comments will be of value to the current study.

The experts were conveniently approached by the researcher at their working places and asked to provide their views regarding the initial research items in the survey. They were also requested to identify the list of travel activities that they think domestic and international tourists prefer to participate when they are at various tourist attraction sites. Also they were asked to identify the reason why some of the activities are least preferred. In order to capture more information regarding travel activities, tourist experts were asked to name examples of each activity in a short survey (see Appendix 1). The information generated from the survey was used as a guide to identify a preference for travel activities of domestic and international tourists and also to modify the final survey.

This idea of using knowledgeable experts is supported by scholars such as Ma (2007) who suggests that purposive sampling is effective when one needs to get information from knowledgeable experts. This sampling design is mostly employed in social science studies especially when a researcher is facing difficulty in obtaining a comprehensive sampling frame (Sirakaya, Uysal & Yoshioka, 2003).

This technique can be used in testing the feasibility of a proposed study (Poggie's, 1972). The use of this technique can be justified as long as the appropriate sample size issued (Sirakaya, Uysal & Yoshioka, 2003; Ma, 2007). Although, there is an ongoing debate over the actual sample size needed to produce reliable information, Bernard (2002) argued that there is no specific sample size needed when one wants to employ this technique as long as the information needed is accessible. However, Seidler (1974) assessed different sample sizes of informants needed for a study to employ this sampling design and found that at least five informants are needed for the data to produce reliable information. At least Seidler's (1974) observation justifies the appropriateness the number of respondents employed in this pilot study.

Despite the fact that purposive sampling design is not representative compared to probability sampling, this sampling design have been extensively used by researchers in different fields including tourism. Examples of current studies in the area of tourism that have used this design include work by Anur *et al.* (2015). In their study, they employed purposive sampling to come up with 420 samples of domestic tourists who traveled to Malaysia as a friendly tourist destination. Pong and Noor (2015) on the other hand used it to choose tourists who visited the Lenggong Valley. Chan and Lee (2015) also employed it to select Hong Kong web users regarding tourism products while; Chetanont (2015) employed it to select 400 Chinese tourists who traveled to Bangkok for shopping.

4.7 Pilot Study

A pilot study is regarded as a feasibility study which is normally done to test the logistics and gathers information prior the final actual data collection. This process helps to eliminate any potential problems in the research instruments (Zikmund, 2003). The reliability of a research design is dependent on testing the research scales and data collection instruments. A Pilot study needs to be done before the final survey is distributed to the targeted sample (Jack& Clarke, 1998; William, 2003). It is the most important and crucial step towards attaining a valid and reliable research instrument (Youngman, 1978). A reliable questionnaire needs to be piloted to make it valid for the study.

One among the advantages of doing a pilot study is that the researcher may predict the success or failure of the study (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Moreover, the process helps in rephrasing, wording and clearing the survey format (Boynton, 2004). It also helps to uncover the missing information, testing for the adequacy of the instrument, forecasts the variability in terms of responses and determines the kind of resources needed to accomplish the study.

In the end, the final survey draft was distributed to tourists ($n=50$) who found the beaches of Zanzibar and Pemba around mid-day were randomly and conveniently approached by the researcher and asked to take part in the study. This activity was done early January 2013 to see if the survey really worked before the actual data collection process. The pretesting exercise was done to assess for the survey suitability, readability, eliminate any vague item and also to determine the response rate. After piloting the survey, several adjustments were made including removing vague and incomplete statements. Additional points regarding the preferred travel activities were also included in the final survey as presented in Appendix 2. The following section highlights the final measurement survey instrument.

4.8 Measurement Scale and Instruments Development

After piloting the instrument, the final step was to develop the final survey items. The survey includes the measurement scales for personality, travel motivation, and destination image. First, several ratings have been employed by different scholar-researchers in measuring big five personality items. The most widely known and comprehensive instrument was developed by Costa and McCrae (1992). The initial scale had 240 item NEO (Neuroticism, extraversion, and Openness) which later was refined to NEO-PI-R. The initial objective of the questionnaire was for the respondents to fill it within 45 minutes only. The most commonly used scale includes the instrument with 44 items (John & Srivastava, 1999). Other researchers such as Costa and McCrae (1992) and Goldberg (1993) expanded the original scale to 100 items. Gosling, Rentfrow, and Swann (2003) developed new big five (shortest version) by conducting two separate studies. The main aim of the studies was to evaluate five and ten item scales and to examine their convergence, reliability and external correlation with the former big five instruments. The first study aimed at developing Five Item Personality Indicators (FIPI), the results were somehow inferior compared to the BFI. However, FIPI attained convergent, discriminant validity, and test-retest reliability. Researchers concluded

that FIPI is a reliable measure and can only be used if a researcher has limited time (Goslin, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003).

Despite the fact that FIPI was approved to be a reliable measure of personality, this scale has serious limitations. First, it uses very few items, that is, there is a risk that few items cannot measure the behaviour of an individual accurately. Thus, it is projected to be less reliable, converges less strongly compared to BFI and has weaker correlations with other measures. On top of that, the scale cannot be employed in structural equation modeling (SEM), because the technique takes into account error terms whereby latent variables are normally represented by measured items with multiple sub-indicators.

FIPI uses a single item to estimate a construct. Therefore, the error term has to be estimated using a different technique. Also, a single item scale cannot control bias if compared with a multi-item scale. Following the above weaknesses, researchers decided to undertake the second scale and employed a Ten Item Personality Indicator (TIPI). The researchers used the same objectives and came out with almost similar findings as the former study. The new scale also was statistically proved to have adequate standards and an ability to measure personality traits.

The advantage of TIPI over FIPI is that it is psychometrically superior; it can be applied to complex techniques such as SEM. It allows researchers to examine measurement error and takes about five minutes to fill (Goslin, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003). The researchers commented that if a shorter instrument is needed to be employed by a researcher then TIPI is the highly recommended scale to be used (Goslin, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003). Furthermore, the shortest version such as TIPI helps researchers to eliminate item redundancy, reduce participant boredom and minimize the chance of repeating the similar question over and over (Burisch, 1984). Personality traits in this study were assessed using big five dimensions

developed by McCrae and Costa (1985), however, a modified TIPI scale developed by Goslin, Rentfrow, and Swann (2003) was employed for this scale.

The final measurement scale for testing tourists personality traits in this study was assessed using big five dimensions developed by McCrae and Costa (1985). However, instead of using the original version of BFI, this study employed the TIPI shortest version developed by Gosling, Rent and Swann (2003), but with minor modification in the scale. For example, instead of using 5-point Likert scale as it was indicated in the original theory. This study employed 7-point Likert scale. The reasons for modifying the scale is highlighted in sub-section 4.10.

For example, personality items (e.g., I see myself as someone who is anxious, I see myself as someone who is easily upset, I see myself as someone who is conventional, I see myself as someone who is uncreative were examined. Respondents were given the list of personality traits for them to put a number against the statement which best describes their personality on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Table 4.1 Measurement Items for Personality

Author (s)	Personality traits	Personality items
Gosling, Rent & Swann (2003)	Neurotic	I see myself as someone who is anxious I see myself as someone who is easily upset
	Closed to experience	I see myself as someone who is conventional I see myself as someone who is uncreative

Note: 1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree moderately, 3= Disagree a little, 4= Neither agree nor disagree, 5= Agree a little, 6= Agree moderately, 7= Strongly agree.

Secondly, this study uses the shortest version of Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) which consists of 32 items. This scale is used because of its reliability. As it was pointed out by Beard and Ragheb (1983), the 32 item scale has a Cronbach's alpha which ranges from 0.89

to 0.91. This implies that the scale is reliable to measure motivation. Additionally, the shortest version is appropriate to be used in a research constrained by time (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Thus, this scale can be applied within less time compared to 48 items from the original scale (Beard & Ragheb, 1983). At times it helps the researcher in avoiding interrupting the tourist's vacation more than absolutely necessary (Thorsteinsen, 2009). The use of 32 items helps the researcher to examine tourist motivation in a broader perspective because the items cover different travel motives which reflect travel desires of different travellers.

Beard and Ragheb (1983) leisure motivation scale was employed to assess travellers' motivations. Again, the travel motivation theory for this study was used only to draw items (indicators) to represent motivation which is a latent variable. Motivation dimensions (e.g., to learn things around me, to build a friendship with others, to challenge my abilities, to relax mentally...) were examined for this study. Respondents were asked to rank travel motivation statements according to the level of importance, whether those statements describe their travel motivation well in a scale of 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). The travel motivation scale was modified from 5 points to 7 point scale, for more clarification regarding the scale modification sees paragraph 4.10.

Table 4.2 Measurement Items for Travel Motivation

Author (s)	Travel motivation	Motivation items
	Intellectual factors	To learn about things around me To satisfy my curiosity To explore new ideas To learn about myself To expand my knowledge To discover new things To be creative To use my imagination
	Social factors	To build friendship with others To interact with others To develop close friendships To meet new and different people To reveal my thoughts, feelings or physical skills to others To be socially competent and skillful

Author (s)	Travel motivation	Motivation items
Beard & Ragheb (1983)		To gain a feeling of belonging To gain others' respect
	Competency/Mastery factors	To challenge my abilities To be good in doing them To improve my skill and ability in doing them To be active To develop physical skills and abilities To keep in shape physically To use my physical abilities To develop physical fitness
	Stimulus/Avoidance factors:	To slow down Sometimes I like to be alone To relax physically To relax mentally To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities To rest To relieve stress and tension To unstructured my time

Note: 1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree moderately, 3= Disagree a little, 4= Neither agree nor disagree, 5= Agree a little, 6= Agree moderately, 7= Strongly agree.

Thirdly, activity items (e.g., such as visiting beaches, visiting city attractions...) were compiled using a list of travel activities from a study of Chow & Murphy (2008) and Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison (1992). These studies were adopted because they contain a comprehensive list of travel activities that are also available in Tanzania. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of activity preference from the given list of travel activities. A 7-likert scale point was employed. The respondents were asked kindly to rank their preference for various travel activities on a scale ranging from 1 (the least preferred activity) to 7 (the most preferred activity). Additionally, an open-ended choice of others was given, in case there was a missing activity. Table 4.3 indicates the summary of the travel activities.

Table 4.3 Travel Activity Items

Author (s)	Category of Activities	Activities included
Chow & Murphy (2008) and	Sightseeing	Visiting beaches Visiting famous attractions in cities Visiting islands
	Entertainment	Going to a nightclub Going to casino

Author (s)	Category of Activities	Activities included
Hsieh, O’Leary & Morrison (1992)	Shopping	Buying of carving products Buying traditional clothes Buying traditional jewelry
	Outdoor	Mountain climbing Hunting Camping

Note: 1= Least preferred activity, 2= moderately un-preferred activity, 3= little un-preferred activity, 4= Neutral, 5= little preferred activity, 6= moderately preferred activity, 7= the most preferred activity.

Fourthly, Due to the reality that tourism services and products are complex in nature (Smith, 1994), multiple items have been used to reveal the accurate response from travellers. Since the interpretation of destination image is subjective and intangible (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), then the best way to assess tourist emotions is through examining the affective image. This is not the only study which examines destination image using affective image items. Other studies include the work of Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) and Walmsley and Young (1998).

In the current study, four bi-polar semantic differential scales were adopted from Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) and Russel and Snodgrass (1987), to measure affective image. According to Russel and Snodgrass (1987), two of the affective image items (i.e., arousing – sleepy and pleasant – unpleasant) are sufficient measures of the destination image. However, the reliability of affective scale will increase if all of the four items are utilized together (Russel & Snodgrass, 1987).

Like in travel motivation and personality, destination image items (e.g., I feel that the image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is dull...) were employed to measure destination image which is a latent variable. Four bipolar semantic differential scales were adopted from a study of Russel & Snodgrass (1987) and Baloglu & Brinberg (1997). Respondents were asked to

rate each of the four affective image items according to their emotions regarding Tanzania as a tourist destination in a 7 scale point.

Table 4.4 Measurement Items for Destination Image

I feel that the image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is...										
Author (s)	Negative emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Positive emotions	
Russel & Snodgrass (1987)	Dull because it has little to offer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Stimulating because of its interesting culture, history etc.	
	Offers unpleasant destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Offers pleasant destination	
Baloglu & Brinberg (1997)	Is boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting	
	Distressing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relaxing	

Note: 1=*Strong negative emotions*, 2= *Negative emotions*, 3= *Somehow negative emotions*, 4= *Neutral*, 5= *Somehow positive emotion*, 6=*Positive emotion*, 7= *Strong positive emotion*.

4.9 Data collection methods

The results from the pilot study confirmed that all the survey items can measure the intended research constructs appropriately. Immediately after identifying the measurement scales, the final survey instrument was developed (see Appendix 2). The actual data collection started around mid-January to end of May 2013. Tourists (both local and international) who were found at the Mwalimu Julius Nyerere International Airport and those at the beaches of the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba were conveniently approached by the researcher and kindly asked to take part in the study. Out of ten approached tourists, a total of seven tourists agreed willingly to take part in the study and they were given a survey to fill in. The researcher approached the tourists and introduced herself. Afterwards, the researcher tried to explain the reasons for conducting the study in Tanzania. The decision to take part in the study was left

entirely to tourists. Those who agree to participate in the study were given a survey to them to fill in.

Some of the respondents refused to fill the survey for one or more reasons, but the researcher did not force anyone instead, other respondents were approached and kindly asked to take part in the study because the whole data collection was meant to be done voluntarily. In order to increase the response rate, the survey was administered the researcher herself with the intention of getting reliable information. This is because reliable questionnaires frequently provide stable results (Boynton & Greenhalgh, 2004). There several advantages of using this technique compared to other data collection methods.

The use of this technique provides an appropriate response especially when the population is large and widely scattered (Kothari, 2004), it is flexible (Malhotra, 2007) and it generates bulky information for less cost (Jack & Clarke, 1998). Also, based on the nature of the study, the questionnaire method was seen to be appropriate as it provided a chance for the appropriate response given that the population is large and widely scattered (Kothari, 2004). The survey includes both closed and open-ended questions. The semi-structured design was used to offer ample time for respondents to provide their views/comments. In order to gather more information, respondents were offered with the option of adding any information for the missing item in the survey.

The survey contained five parts. The first part covered introduction and the main study objectives. This part covered general information about the respondents, demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, nationality, visitors' country of origin, occupation, the number of family size of respondents and income were gathered. This section composed of nine questions. The second part was structured to capture details regarding personality traits and motivation. This section contained four personality traits (see Table

4.1), and thirty-two travel motivation statements (see Table 4.2). The third section was designed to capture information regarding travel activities.

The final section was structured to measure tourists' emotions regarding Tanzania as a tourist destination. The last section had four destination image statements. To get more details from tourists, the researcher developed a technique of checking the filled in surveys immediately after collecting them. The reason for the daily checking was to make sure that the non-response rate is reduced to the minimum. Out of 500 surveys, only 431 were recognized as a usable survey, representing a token usable return rate of 86.2%.

4.10 Justification for the Scale Modification

The psychometric analysis suggests that it is better to use a scale with more points than a few. A seven-point scale offers a good balance and great chance for respondents to express their views in a broader way (Nunnally, 1978). The literature has identified that in order to get an unbiased response it is better to use higher scale points than few because there is great danger of introducing measurement error when small-scale point is used. For example, in a five scale point scale, respondents are given a limited choice for them to offer what they really feel. Hence, the next best alternative for them is to balance what they want to express on a narrow scale. In doing so, there is a great chance that an element of measurement error will be introduced.

A good number of researchers reports the advantages of using a seven-point scale have been reported in the literature. Sauro and Dumas (2009) have pointed out that seven point scale is a robust measure, more accurate, easier to use and is a better reflection of respondents true subjective view than a five point item scale. On the other hand, it was reported that reliability is highly attained when a seven scale points are used compared to five point scale (Owuor, 2001; Dawes, 2007). Statistically, scales with small numbers of response categories produce

scores that are less valid than those with more response items. Furthermore, there is a great opportunity for a researcher to gather more data when a larger point scale is used compared to when a five Likert scale is employed. A good example is a work by Preston and Colman (2000) who reported that if a multi-item scale with more response options is employed, respondents are more likely to use more options; thus, more details will be generated.

4.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented research methodology employed for the study. It further clarified issues regarding study population, sampling technique; sample size, pilot study, and data collection methods. This chapter moreover covered the measurement scales for each construct. It ended with the justification for scale modification. The following section presents the data analysis methods adopted for this study.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS METHODS

5.0 Introduction

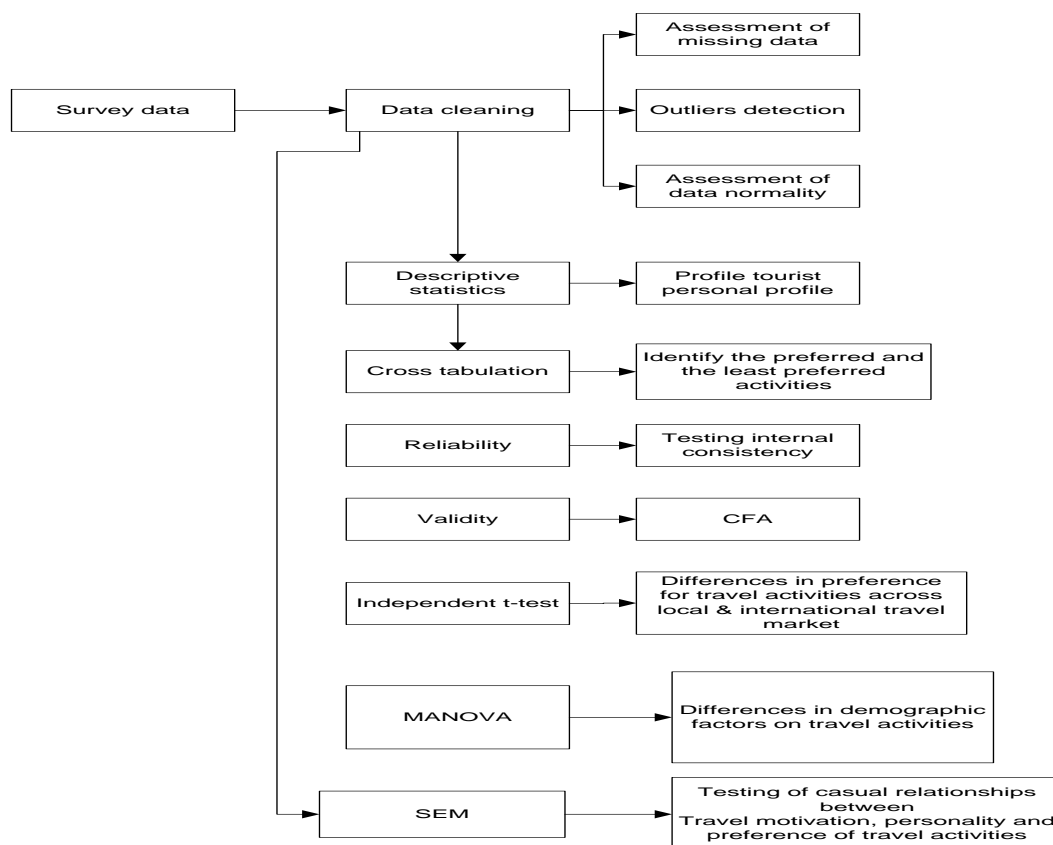
Chapter four highlighted research designs and survey development procedures applied in this study. It specifically described the study population, sampling strategy and sample size. It further clarified survey pre-testing procedure. The chapter moreover covers the measurement scales for the final survey before it describes the data collection methods. This chapter discusses various data analysis techniques employed for this study. The following section summarizes data cleaning process which includes the assessment of the missing values, non-response bias control, normality and outliers test. This section also discusses the preliminary test such as descriptive statistics. It further introduces analysis from techniques such as independent t-test, reliability, and validity. Information regarding MANOVA is also discussed in this chapter. Finally, the details regarding confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling will also be discussed in this chapter. The chapter ends with the justification for the selected data analysis techniques.

As it was explained in Chapter One, this study has five main objectives. The first one was to identify the type(s) of travel activities preferred by international and domestic tourists. The second specific objective was to test if there were any differences between local and international tourists' preferences in terms of various travel activities. The third one involves examining the influence of different demographic factors such as marital status, the family size and marital status on travel activities. The fourth objective deals with the examination of the effect of travel motivation and personality traits on visitors' travel activities. The final objective deals with the assessment of the role of the destination image in mediating the effect of travel motivation and personality on travel activities.

To achieve the aforementioned objectives, four different data analysis techniques were employed, namely descriptive statistics, independent t-test, MANOVA, and structural equation modeling as they are presented in Figure 5.1.

However, Figure 5.1 covers some initial analysis techniques, the first between data cleaning process which covers analysis of missing values, assessment of outliers as well as data normality. Other initial analysis techniques employed were cross tabulation, reliability and validity tests. The following sections cover these techniques in detail.

Figure 5.1 Summary of Data Analysis Methods



Source: Field (2013)

5.1 Data Cleaning

Data cleaning is regarded as a time-consuming activity; however, it is one of the most critical steps in any analysis. The main aim of cleaning data is to reveal the hidden effect that might

have significant effects on the data analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Data cleaning process was done before the actual data analysis. Due to the fact that the quality of on-site survey varies considerably, the researcher took initiative to make sure the quality data is obtained as much as possible. First of all, researcher personally conducted a daily data check (at the end of the day) during the whole data collection period. This activity was done to identify if there was any incomplete data set or duplicated information. In short, the whole process was meant to remove random and systematic errors from the generated data set. All the duplicated information was excluded and only the clean surveys were retained for coding.

5.1.1 Missing Values

The issue of having a missing data in research needs to be addressed carefully because if it happens that the valid values for one or more variables are not available, then the whole research become meaningless. Hair *et al.* (2010) highlighted that researchers are facing a challenge of addressing this issue because the missing data affects the generalizability of the study findings. In the past, several techniques have been employed to address the issue of missing data. However, researchers have failed to reach conclusion regarding the assumption behind the missing data mechanism (Enders, 2006). Nevertheless, the most commonly employed techniques to solve the problem of missing data include complete case approach (leastwise deletion); all available approach (pairwise deletion) and imputation techniques e.g., mean imputation (Olinsky, Chen & Harlow, 2003; Enders, 2006). For the purpose of this study, descriptive analysis was employed to reveal if there was any missing data (See Appendix 3).

5.1.2 Non-Response Bias Control

Non-response is a general problem that quantitative researchers face. In trying to minimize such a problem, a survey was carried out with the permission from the Ministry of Tourism

and Natural Resources and Tanzania Tourism Board (see approval letters in Appendix 7). It was necessary for the researcher of the current study to have permission from the above mentioned bodies before starting to collect data, especially because if the study sample involves tourists. However, the interest to take part in the study was left entirely to the respondents.

5.1.3 Assessment of Data Normality and Outliers

Testing for data normality and assessing the existence of the outliers in the data set is the crucial decision. It is a key requirement for multivariate analysis techniques such as SEM. Previous studies have indicated that there are several methods for testing data normality and assessing outliers in the data set. One of them is the assessment of skewness and kurtosis (Shammout, 2007). Researchers have been debating over the cutoff point in examining data skewness and kurtosis.

Meyer, Gamst & Guarino (2006) argued that if skewness and kurtosis value falls within positive 1 to negative 1, then one can conclude that the data is normally distributed. While on the other hand, Field (2009, p.138) viewed that for data to attain normality, “the values of skewness and kurtosis are supposed to be zero”. For the purpose of this study, the analysis of skewness and kurtosis was done to reveal if there was a violation of data normality and to detect the existence of any outliers. The variables which were found to have extreme cases were removed from the analysis based on the Pallant (2011) suggestions. Table 6.1 presents skewness and kurtosis results.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics was done to determine the general tourist characteristics and to assess the kind of travel activity that is preferred by the tourists. For summary of the results see Table 6.3 in Chapter Six.

5.3 Methods of Analysis for Tests of Difference -Independent t-test

Independent t-test was employed in this study to examine whether there were any statistical significance differences between international and local tourists' preferences in terms of travel activities. The results of this test are presented in sub-section 6.11 in chapter Six. Specifically, the result for the groups mean differences between the above mentioned is presented in Table 6.12.

5.3.1 Assumptions behind Independent t-test

One of the key assumptions behind the use of independent t- test requires the data for both groups to be normally distributed. A t- test has been described in statistical literature to be the most robust method with respect to normality assumption. In addition, for t-test to be examined, the variances for both groups should be equal. This assumption was tested using Levene's test. A result for this test is presented in Table 6.11.

5.4 MANOVA

There are several techniques used in testing group differences. Some of these techniques include independent t-test and ANOVA. These two techniques are used to assess the group differences in the mean score values for two or more independent variables. However, MANOVA is used if one wants to compare mean score differences of multiple dependent variables across multiple groups. This technique allows a researcher to identify the effect of each independent variable on a dependent variable. Furthermore, it gives opportunity to test the simultaneous comparison of group mean differences for multiple dependent variables (Hair *et al.*, 2007). This statistical test assumes data normality like any other multivariate technique. In this study, MANOVA was employed to examine whether the differences in demographic factors such as marital status, tourist occupation status and family size have any

influence on travel activities. Table 6.10 found in Chapter Six present results from multivariate test and estimated marginal means for the variable interactions respectively.

5.4.1 Importance of Using MANOVA

As one among the multivariate techniques, MANOVA has more advantages over other techniques such as independent t-test and ANOVA because it has a power of reducing type 1 error (i.e., false rejection of the null hypothesis). It also assesses the relationship among multiple dependent variables by testing the variance-covariance matrix. This technique is powerful when it comes to detecting the effects of individual independent variables on dependent variables. In addition to that, the technique offers a chance to identify the dependent variable that offers the maximum group difference (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2006). However, one limitation of this statistical test is that it can only be employed when the correlations between dependent variables is neither too high nor too low (Hair *et al.*, 2007). A correlation value of 0.60 or closer to that is regarded as a desired value for a researcher to use MANOVA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

5.4.2 Assumptions for MANOVA

The first assumption that researcher need to take into account is that the observations that contain an independent variable should be independent of each other (Meyers, Gamst & Guirano, 2006; Hair *et al.*, 2007). This assumption was met as each of the independent variable is different from each other. This assumption was satisfied since the study had two different types of tourists (Locals and internationals).

Secondly, homogeneity of the covariance matrix for each dependent variable across the groups should be attained. The Box M test is designed for testing the homogeneity of the covariance matrix. If it happens that there is an equal number of observations in each group, the robustness of MANOVA is met. However, in case there is unbalanced design, and then

one is required to test the equality of covariance matrices using Box's M test. If the non-significant results then it means the assumption of homogeneity of the covariance matrix is met. However, in case there is any violation regarding this assumption then the researcher is advised to use Pillai criterion to assess the significance of the multivariate effect (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Pillai's test is more powerful and robust in testing for the significance of main effects and interactions compared to other techniques such as Wilk's Lamda, Hotelling's trace criterion and Roy's GCR criterion. This study employed Pillai's criterion because it is regarded to be the most robust and powerful technique to be used in case of any violations in MANOVA tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

Thirdly, the assumption of data normality for the dependent variables should be met before running MANOVA. Due to the fact that there is no direct test for testing multivariate normality, a good number of researchers have been using univariate normality as a proxy for satisfying this assumption (Hair *et al.*, 2007). It is highlighted that the use of a large sample size helps to reduce the effects of data normality. In this test, the univariate tests were done for all the dependent variables to make sure that this assumption is attained.

5.5 Uni-Variate ANOVA

After testing MANOVA, the results turn out to be significant (it means that there is a significant effect of the independent variable on dependent variables), then univariate test should be done to determine the contributory effect of each of the independent variable on the dependent variables. This test helps researchers to tell the interactive effect of a single dependent variable caused by an independent variable.

5.6 Reliability Concept

Reliability means the ability of the research instrument to provide consistent results over time if similar measures are employed (Kothari, 2004; Malhotra, 2007; Fink, 2009). Testing for

reliability in any research offers the opportunity for a researcher to have a clear picture regarding the true relationships among variables in a given model. In any survey instrument that uses a multi-item scale for it to be reliable, the score for the individual items should be correlated. Hair *et al.* (2007, p. 241) pointed out that “the stronger the correlation in a summated scale, the more reliable the instrument”.

Several techniques have been used to assess variables’ reliability, some of them including test-retest, alternative forms, split half and internal consistency technique. For the former two techniques, the researcher is required to test using the same respondents after a period of time. These two techniques were not feasible due to limited research funds. In split half reliability, all the indicators which measure the same construct are divided into two sets and then the correlation between the two scores. However, this technique requires a larger sample size. Consequently, the last technique deals with a single test of scale reliability which includes construct and indicators (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For the reasons mentioned above, this study employed Cronbach’s alpha to assess for construct/item reliability, because Cronbach’s alpha is one among the approach which is used to measure the reliability of scales with multiple items (Hayes, 1998).

Cronbach’s alpha has been employed extensively in many studies to assess internal reliability (Coakes & Steed, 2001). This test was employed to determine which items were reliable and which ones were not based on the specified range. Several guidelines have been put forward by several researchers regarding the cut-of-points for Cronbach’s alpha. Hair *et al.* (1998) and Nunnally (1998) argued that if the variable/item has a reliability value of greater than 0.7, then that item is considered to be reliable. While other researchers point out if an item has a Cronbach’s alpha of greater than 0.5, then that item has a sufficient condition to be called a reliable item (Bollen, 1989). The cutoff point of .90 is reported to be “*excellent*”, 0.80 means

“*very good*” in terms of reliability (Hayes, 1998; Kline, 1998). Apart from Cronbach’s alpha, the inter-item correlations were also performed to examine correlations among the items for the scales/subscales used. In this study, all scales with the Cronbach’s alpha greater than 0.70 were considered reliable.

Despite its importance, Cronbach’s alpha is criticized because it does not measure the unidimensionality of a scale. Because of this weakness, some of the scholars have considered it as an inadequate measure of scale reliability and consider CFA as a better measure (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). To test the reliability of a scale using CFA, one needs to examine construct reliability (Fornell & Lacker, 1981; Shammout, 2007; Hair *et al.*, 2007). Construct reliability needs to be equal to or greater than 0.60 for a scale to attain its reliability (Bagozzi, 1981). In this study, apart from Cronbach’s alpha, construct reliability was examined to assess the scale reliability. Table 6.6 in Chapter Six presents the summary of the reliability results for all the scales.

5.7 Validity Construct

The idea behind validity lays in the research instrument that measures what is supposed to be measured (Kothari, 2004; Fink, 2009; Malhotra, 2007). It is argued however that validity has to be examined from two angles, which account for the convergent and discriminant validity (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). For this study, both convergent and discriminant validity were examined before testing the causal relationships. The summary of the validity results is presented in chapter six (see subheading 6.6.4 in Chapter Six).

5.7.1 Construct Validity

Construct validity tends to check how the scales can measure the variables that are theoretically related to the variables that the scale intends to measure. It is argued that among

convergent validity dimensions, construct validity is the most important test, because of its ability to measure the relationship between theory and its measures (Churchill, 1979). This type of validity can be attained based on the strong evidence from the theory (Malhotra, 2007). Construct validity can be measured using CFA. In order to assess this validity, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) were examined at the construct level (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). According to Bagozzi (1998) the value of CR should be greater than 0.7 and AVE need to be higher than 0.5. Construct validity was examined before testing SEM models.

$$\text{Composite Reliability } (\rho) = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{[(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum (\delta_i)]}$$

Note: CR= Composite Reliability, λ = standardised factor loadings and δ = the indicator measurement error. In this study each indicator item was represented by the initial letter of each latent variable for example, the indicator items representing latent variable SO was SO1 etc.

5.7.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity was examined in this study. Convergent validity is attained when each measurement item correlates strongly with its latent construct. This simply means that the measurement items should converge or share high proportion of variance in common. The value usually ranges from 0 to 1. Testing convergent validity requires all the factor loadings are required to be significant (Hair *et al.*, 2010). However, researchers have been arguing on how to attain this validity. Different scholars came up with various views regarding this subject matter. For instance, Churchill (1979) argued that a value of the regression weights ranging between 0.5- 0.7 is considered to be acceptable, while others like Tabachnick and

Fidell (2007) focused on values between 0.3- 0.5 as the acceptance range. For this study, all the regression weights were above 0.50. Convergent validity was also examined using Average Variance Extracted (AVE), based on the approach developed by Fornell and Lacker (1981); convergent validity can be attained when the value of AVE for each construct is above 0.5. The summary of the results is indicated in Table 6.8. The value of AVE is calculated using the formula developed by Hair *et al.* (1995) as:

$$AVE = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2)}{(\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2) + (\sum_{i=1}^n \delta_i)}$$

Note: AVE= Average Variance Explained (AVE), λ = standardised factor loadings and δ = the indicator measurement error.

5.7.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity expresses the extent to which the latent variable can explain more variance in the observed variables related to it than a measurement error or external factors outside the proposed framework. However, due to a need for having a rigorous assessment and limitations in data collection, it appears wise to use the technique by Fornell and Lacker (1981), because their method is one of the best in examining the discriminant validity among others (Farrell, 2009). For this study, discriminant validity was examined by comparing the average variance (AVE) of each construct with the shared variance between constructs as indicated by Fornell and Larker (1981), Bove *et al.* (2009), Hassan *et al.* (2007), Walsh, Beatty and Shiu (2009). In all of the constructs, the AVE was greater than the shared variance. In other words, the correlations between constructs were presented as off-diagonal values against the square roots of AVE (diagonal values). In the end, all AVE values were

found to be greater than the correlation values; hence, the discriminant validity was attained. For the summary of the results see Table 6.8 in Chapter Six.

5.8 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is a technique that is normally employed to confirm the factor structure of a set of observed variables (Hair *et al.*, 2006). The technique helps researcher to examine the relationship between observed variables and latent variables. In the current study, CFA was employed to assess the measurement models. It is reported that CFA should be performed before evaluating and re-specifying the measurement and structural models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

In this study, the first order CFA was conducted with the combined database of the international travel market ($I_{\text{international}}=201$) and from the local travel market ($d_{\text{domestic}}=230$). The aim of conducting first order CFA was to confirm the validity of the factors before examining the measurement model and estimating the causal relationships among variables. In this study, CFA was employed instead of exploratory factor analysis (EFA). This technique is mostly preferred over EFA, as the factor structure identified by EFA might become poor when assessing CFA (Kline, 2005; Shammout, 2007).

In interpreting CFA, all the factor loadings of the observed items need to be statistically significant for a given latent variable. Although researchers came up with different views regarding the cut-off point of a standardised loading, some argued that a cut-off point of 0.30 counts, others recommend 0.4 as an acceptable range, and most of them suggest 0.50 as the desired point (Byrne, 2001; Meyers, Gamst & Guirano, 2006; Hair *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, if an item failed to meet this criterion, it was removed from the scale of the measurement

model. For the purpose of this study, a cut-off point of 0.50 was employed as a basis for determining a standardised loading.

5.9 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is developed to examine how well a proposed conceptual framework that consists of observed variables and unobserved constructs fits the collected data (Bollen, 1989). The proposed conceptual framework was developed to test the influence of two exogenous variables (travel motivation and personality) on endogenous variable (travel activities). It was also constructed to examine the effects of destination image as a mediating variable in influencing the above relationships. The proposed hypotheses were tested using structural equation analysis. Hair *et al.* (2010, p.63) says that Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a “family statistical technique that deals with explaining the relationships among multiple constructs. It examines the structure of the interrelationships expressed in multiple equations, similar to combinations of multiple regression equations”.

5.9.1 Rationale for Using SEM

In this study, SEM was employed to examine the relationships presented in the conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) Apart from this technique; path analysis is another statistical technique that can also be used to examine causal relationships among variables. However, this technique has been reported to be weak because it assumes error free in measuring study variables (Shammout, 2007). Also, its reliability is questionable. On the other hand, SEM takes into account the issue of measurement error. For this reason, makes SEM technique to be more robust and stringent in testing for hypothesis and the overall model fit (Meyers, Gamst& Guarino, 2006).

Furthermore, this technique has more advantages over other techniques such as factor analysis and multiple linear regressions because it combines both techniques. Additionally, techniques

such as regression or the general linear model take into account observed variables only. Moreover, SEM takes care of both observed and unobserved variables and describes the amount of unexplained variance (Byrne, 1998; Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Most of the research constructs for this study (travel motivation, personality, preference of travel activities, destination image) are unobserved variables. Therefore, they can only be measured indirectly using observed items such as survey items designed to accommodate responses related to those variables. In social science research, it is common to see unobserved items measured using observed variables. Scholars have agreed upon the multi-dimensionality and complexity of research concepts such as travel motivation, personality, preference for travel activities and destination image. Thus, more than one latent item could be derived from these concepts.

This technique has been extensively used in different fields of study including psychology, sociology, economics, cross-cultural research, management, environmental studies and marketing (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). This technique has been proved to be efficient in dealing with multicollinearity (Bacon & Associates, 1997) and analyzing the nature and magnitude of the relationships among variables (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). The literature has highlighted that there are no widely and easily alternative approaches for modeling multivariate relations or examining indirect effects, these crucial features are easily accessed using SEM (Byrne, 2001). A good number of related studies have also employed this technique some of which include those of Mathieu *et al.* (2011), Tang *et al.* (2012) and Swanson and Horridge (2004).

Clearly, the proposed model in this study was developed to test the structural relationships among the unobserved variables that are constructed based on the relevant theories and past empirical works. Therefore, the SEM is an appropriate technique for testing the proposed hypotheses for this study.

5.9.2 Components of Structural Equation Modelling

There are two components that are used to examine structural equation modeling, namely measurement model, and structural model.

5.9.2.1 Measurement Models

The former component (Measurement Model) describes the general model in which latent constructs are presented together. The relationships among latent constructs (unobserved items) are represented as covariances among two or more observed items (Hoyle, 1995). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to test the measurement model. The proposed hypotheses regarding the relationships among the unobserved constructs and the observed variables were tested. Thus, the measurement model describes the posited above relationships, while at the same time specifies the freedom of random error and uniqueness related with their items.

Therefore, before testing the overall measurement models, each construct was tested separately. The reason for testing each construct separately was to determine whether each construct had attained an acceptable fit index and to know whether they measured what was theoretically believed to measure. Once the model attained its fit, then the overall model was assessed. This model represents researchers' theoretical model of interest.

In this study, CFA was employed not only to validate the factor structures, but also to examine the measurement model by indicating the relationships between the observed variables and unobserved items. Therefore, once the validity of the scales was attained, the next step was to test the scale reliability. In the process of examining validity of a measurement model, different goodness of fit indices was employed. SEM literature has shown a tremendous growth in terms of addressing the fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data.

Over a couple of decades, at least 24 fit indices have been identified (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2006). Despite the excess fit indices, no single index is reported to be the best in assessing the strength of a model's prediction. There still is on-going debate over how to categorize these indices. Researchers agree that the indices can be classified into three main groups, namely absolute, relative and parsimonious. It was pointed out that at least one of the fit indices from each category should be reported in the research. In this study, Chi-square test (χ^2), df/χ^2 , NFI, CFI, TLI, PNFI, PCFI, and RMSEA were reported. These indices have been selected because they are commonly used in marketing studies (Moore & Lutz, 2000; Putrevu, 2008).

The above-mentioned goodness of fit indices differs in terms of how they work. Starting with the absolute fit indices, these indices do measure how well the model proposed by the researcher fits the observed data. Indices that are included in this category include Chi-square, the ratio between Chi-square (χ^2), the ratio between degrees of freedom (χ^2/df), AGFI, Hoelter's CN, AIC, BIC, ECVI, RMR, and SRMR. However, in this study only (χ^2), (χ^2/df), GFI and AGFI will be reported for the reason mentioned earlier.

Chi-square (χ^2), the test was employed to test the null hypotheses that the population covariance matrix is equal to the covariance matrix as indicated by the hypothesised model (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). A non-significant value of (χ^2) implies that there is no variation between the covariance matrix represented by the model and the population covariance (Kelloway, 1998). The major disadvantage of this test is that it normally is affected by the sample size, that is, it can be inflated with a large sample size. Although this test has been widely applied, it is not advised to assess the model fit using this test. Other indices have to be employed hand in hand with this technique.

Due to the weakness of the previous index, the ratio between Chi-square and the degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) was developed to be used together with the Chi-square test to assess the model fit. Scholars were arguing about the desired cut-off point for one to achieve a good model fit. To some, if the ratio of (χ^2/df) is greater than 3, it implies the poor fit of the model. Others recommended a ratio of 3:1 (Marsh, Balla & McDonald, 1988), and other scholars suggested that the ratio between these indices should be less than 5 (Kelloway, 1998), others recommends a range from as high as 5 (Wheaton *et al.*, 1997). This shows that there is no consensus regarding the acceptable cut-off point for this index.

AGFI and GFI: An adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) tries to accommodate differing degrees of model complexity. It works better by adjusting GFI to its degrees of freedom used in the model to the total degrees of freedom available. Hair *et al.* (2010) argue that AGFI has a tendency of penalizing more complex models and favours those with a minimum number of free paths. The values of AGFI are normally lower than the values of GFI; however, the former index is less used compared to other indices that are not affected by sample size and model complexity. On the other hand, GFI is among the preferred indices over AGFI. This is so because as Hair *et al.* (2010) pointed out that it is easy to interpret this index because it is equivalent to R^2 which is used in multiple regression analysis. Despite the fact that GFI is one among the preferred indices by most researcher, the simulation studies have indicated that when factor loadings and sample sizes are low a higher cut-off of 0.95 is more appropriate (Miles and Shevlin, 1998). Given the sensitivity of this index, it has become less popular in recent years and it has even been recommended that this index should not be used (Sharma *et al.*, 2005); as a result this index will not be reported in this study.

Other indices are relative fit indices/incremental fit indices. These indices differ from the previous indices because they assess how well the estimated model fits relative to some

alternative baseline model. Baseline model is referred to as a null model, which assumes that all observed variables are uncorrelated. There are a good number of incremental fit indices but the most commonly used ones are Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative fit index (CFI).

Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). Is almost similar to Normed Fit Index (NFI), but they differ in that TLI deals with a comparison of the Normed Chi-square values for the null and specified model. It also takes into account the model complexity. However, this index is not normed so, its values may fall below 0 or be above 1. Hair *et al.* (2010) suggests that for models to achieve a good fit the value of TLI needs to approach 1 (i.e., the higher the value the better the model fit).

The Comparative fit index (CFI) is an incremental fit index and at the same time, it is an improved version of the Normed fit index (NFI). This index has been widely employed by a good number of researchers. Researchers came up with different criteria to understand this index better. Hair *et al.* (2010) suggests that the values of CFI usually range between 0 and 1; a higher value indicates a better fit, and so value above 0.90 imply a better fit.

Parsimonious fit indices are other indices that offer information regarding which model among a set of competing models is best, based on its complexity. Hair *et al.* (2010) commented that it is easy to interpret these indices because they are conceptually similar to the concept of an adjusted R^2 and they have a tendency of relating the model fit to model complexity. There is no agreement regarding the use of these indices as some scholars argue that a comparison of competing models and incremental indices offers similar evidence. These indices offer more information in assessing the competing models though they should not be used alone. The most widely applied index in this category includes Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) and Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index (PCFI).

The Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI): Usually is applied by multiplying it by the PR. The values of PNFI are designed to be used in comparing one model with another. Researchers have failed to reach an agreement regarding the threshold levels recommended for this index. Hair *et al.* (2010) argue that the high the value of PNFI, the better the model fit. Mulaik *et al.* (1989) commented that it is possible to obtain the better index within the 0.50 region, while other GOF indices attain its fit over 0.90. Researchers are urged not to use these indices alone because of the interpretation complications.

Apart from the above indices, another employed index is the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA). This is one of the most widely used measures that correct the behaviour of a Chi-square GOF test to reject models with a large sample size. In short, this test assesses how well a model fits a population, not just a sample employed for estimation. This test basically deals with the analysis of residual. Kelloway (1998) suggests that the smaller the value of RMSEA the better the model fit. It takes into account the issue of sample size and model complexity. Like any other index, scholars have been debating back and forth regarding the desirable point for a good model fit. Steiger (1990) suggests that RMSEA values below 0.10 show a good fit, and if the value is below 0.05 then it implies a very good fit. The significant fit is attained when the RMSEA value is below 0.01. Hair *et al.* (2010) suggest a cutoff value of 0.05 or 0.08 to be a good fit. Table 5.1 below provides covered more details regarding the above-covered indices.

Table 5.1 Goodness of Fit Indices

Fit indices	Goodness of fit indices (GOF)	Cut off points and descriptions of each index to attain model validity
Absolute	χ^2	▪ $p > .05$
	χ^2/df	▪ ≤ 3
	GFI	▪ GFI values $> .90$ indicates good fit
	RMSEA	▪ $< .10$
Incremental	NFI	▪ Values range between 0-1 if NFI is one (Perfect fit)
	TLI	▪ Values can below 0 or are above 1 If TLI value that approaches 1 (indicates a good fit)
	CFI	▪ Values range between 0-1, the higher value e.g., .90 (better fit)
Parsimony	PNFI	▪ Value $\geq .50$
	PCFI	▪ Value $\geq .50$

Source: Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, (2006); Hair *et al.* (2010)

5.9.2.2 Assessment of the Structural Model

After confirming the validity and reliability of the measurement model as presented in Chapter Six (see Table 6.6 and Table 6.8), the following step was to test the structural model. In this study, two-stage approaches were used to perform SEM, whereby the measurement model was established first before testing the structural relationships (Hair *et al.*, 2007; Shammout, 2007). The model was tested using the same GOF index that was used to assess the measurement model.

In the case of any problem, the researcher consulted the modification indices (MIs). The MIs outputs were used to correct the model in the case of any model misfit. A modification index which showed a greater value among others drew the attention that there was a problem in the

model as highlighted by Byrne (2001). The item with the highest value becomes a potential candidate for removal because measuring such a relation could have a considerable effect on the chi-square value.

Nevertheless, the literature suggests that the use of MIs requires theoretical justification. Apart from MIs, the value of the standardised residual was also inspected in case of any model misfit. In case the item is found to have a standardised residual of greater than ± 2.58 it implies that there is a problem, any value exceeding 3.84, becomes a prime candidate for removal.

Furthermore, in case the researcher obtained a negative variance (Heywood case) in a data set, a technique developed by Hair *et al.* (2010) was employed to treat such situation. A decision to constrain a value of 0.005 was used every time when the researcher encounters a negative variance.

In order to estimate parameters, Maximum likelihood method (MLE) was used to estimate the parameters in the model. The reason for choosing this MLE was due to the fact that this technique offers valid and stable results (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, this technique is believed to be more efficient and unbiased when the assumption of multivariate normality is met. It is one of the techniques widely used by a good number of researchers because it has been proved to be fairly robust to violations of the normality assumption.

After estimating all parameters in the model, the next step followed was to test the mediation effect. The mediation effect was tested based on the conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). First, there should be a significant association between independent variable and dependent variable without the mediating variable (i.e., a direct path between exogenous variable on the endogenous variable for the case of this study). Secondly, there should be a

significant association between an independent variable and the mediator. Thirdly, the mediator must have a significant association with the independent and dependent variables and fourthly, once the previously identified are met, the effect of the independent variable on dependent variable must be smaller in the third condition than in the first.

In testing the mediation effect, first, the direct path was tested in the structural model without the mediator variable. The aim of testing the direct path first was to determine the effect of endogenous variables (i.e., SO, MC, IL, SA, NR, CL) on the outcome variables (i.e., SP, OD, ST, ET) while controlling for the mediator. As it was pointed out by Hair *et al.* (2010), for mediation effect to be assessed, all the direct structural paths need to be significant before testing the indirect effect. If the initial direct paths failed to produce significant results then it implies that there is a sign of no mediation: hence, there is no need to do further analysis. However, if the initial paths produced a significant result then one can proceed to test for the indirect effect. In other words, if the null hypothesis is accepted ($H_0: \gamma_{zy}^* = 0$) then, it means the mediator and the outcome variable are not related; therefore there is no need to do the further test (Gunzler, *et al.*, 2013).

Secondly, the structural model was expanded to include the mediator variable (destination image). Afterwards, the indirect effect was examined; according to Gunzler *et al.* (2013), indirect effect represents the structural path from the exogenous variable to the outcome via the mediator. Once the null hypothesis ($H_0: \gamma_{zy}^* = 0$) is rejected then, one can proceed to test for mediation by assessing whether there is a partial or full mediation.

The Full mediation is attained when the effect is 100% explained by the mediator (i.e., once the mediator variable is included into the model the initial path coefficients changed completely from being significant to non-significant). Partial mediation was attained when

the initial path coefficients changed a bit but still remained significant as the initial results. Partial mediation is more common in most studies, in case the mediator only mediates part of the intervention on the outcome variable (Gunzler *et al.*, 2013). In this study, the mediation testing followed steps described by Baron and Kenny (1986), Hair *et al.* (2010), and Gunzler *et al.* (2013).

The final step in examining the structural model involves the assessment of the competing models. To achieve this, a two-step approach was developed as highlighted by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). This approach requires estimating a series of nested structural models, for example, M_1 , M_2 , etc.). The model M_2 is regarded to be nested within another model M_1 when its set of freely estimated parameters is a subset of those estimated in M_1 . This implies that one or more parameters that are freely estimated in M_1 are constrained in M_2 (i.e., $M_2 < M_1$).

Generally, these parameters are fixed at zero, although equality constraints may be used so that the two or more parameters are constrained to have a similar value. Saturated structural sub-model (M_s) is the one in which all the parameters (i.e., unidirectional paths) relating to constructs to one another are estimated. It is equivalent to confirmatory measurement model. Null structural model (M_n) is the one in which all the parameters relating the constructs to another are fixed at zero (i.e., it assumes that there are no relationships of the constructs to one another).

In assessing structural model, M_t represents researchers' theoretical model. M_c and M_u are usually developed out of the theoretical structural model. They represent the next most likely constrained and unconstrained alternatives from the theoretical structural model. In M_c , one or more parameters estimated in M_t are constrained, whereas, in M_u , one or more parameters constrained in M_t are estimated. Based on all of these, the assessment of the competing models involves the assessment of the sequential chi-square difference tests (SCDTs)

between researchers' model of interest (M_i) and the other models such as M_u and M_c . In this study, the results of fit indices for competing models for local and international travel market are presented in Chapter Six (see Table 6.29 and 6.30 respectively).

5.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the pre-data analysis techniques for the main study. In addition, it discussed in detail the overall data analysis techniques. It included the preliminary data analysis techniques such as skewness and kurtosis, assessment of outliers and descriptive statistics. Furthermore, it covered the main data analysis techniques that were employed for this study. The chapter covered in detail the assumption behind using each data analysis technique such as independent t-test, MANOVA, and SEM. The next chapter discusses the study findings based on the methods discussed in this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

STUDY FINDINGS

6.1 Chapter Overview

The previous chapter discussed in detail the data analysis techniques employed in this study. This chapter discusses the results of the proposed model and the hypothesis testing. First, this chapter presents results from data screening process (assessment of the missing data, outliers, and data normality). The chapter moreover presents descriptive statistics results followed by the findings from techniques such as independent t-test, SEM, and MANOVA.

6.2 Data Cleaning

Data cleaning was done to make sure that the data entry was done properly and given the right coding. The assessment of the data shows that there were no data that were wrongly coded. The following steps involved the assessment of missing values, outliers, and data normality.

6.2.1 Handling of Missing Values

The analysis of the missing data was performed using descriptive statistics to see if there was any missing value in the data set. As it was pointed out by Hair *et al.* (2007) it is difficult for large data set to have no missing values (Hair *et al.*, 2007), the initial inspection indicated that there were missing values and incomplete information in some cases. Although surveys were administered personally, still some cases had incomplete details. Since the initial sample size was 500, all the cases which had incomplete details were removed before starting data analysis. After removing surveys with missing details, 431 usable responses were used in the analysis. This represents a response rate of 86.2%. Descriptive statistics was performed to see if there were any missing details in the data set but the overall finding indicated that there

was no more missing information in the data set. For a summary of the results see Appendix 3.

6.2.2 Results for the Assessment of Data Normality and Outliers

The process of determining if there were outliers and data normality in the data set was done. In the data set, some of the items were found to have outliers; therefore the extreme outlying cases were removed. It was suggested in the literature that one way of handling outliers is to remove all the extreme cases before further analysis is done (Pallant, 2011). After deleting all the extreme cases in the dataset, the next step was to check and see whether there were more outliers in the data set. The assessment for checking outliers was done using skewness and kurtosis test. The results indicated that there were no extreme cases as most of the variables tested in this study fall within the acceptance range of 1 and -1 as highlighted by Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino, (2006). Final results are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Skewness and Kurtosis Results

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gets nervous easily	3.61	1.800	0.197	-1.012
Gets upset easily	3.69	1.797	0.207	-1.042
Conventional	4.06	2.054	-0.170	-1.035
Uncreative	3.94	1.975	-0.152	-1.027
Explore new ideas	5.57	1.341	-0.838	0.015
Expand my knowledge	5.92	1.206	-1.023	-1.086
Satisfy my curiosity	5.60	1.325	-0.809	0.036
Interact with others	5.38	1.458	-0.740	-0.038
Socially competent	5.17	1.588	-0.701	-0.150

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
G/feeling of belonging	4.85	1.786	-0.565	-0.611
Challenge my abilities	5.45	1.217	-0.538	-0.061
To be active	5.61	1.321	-0.934	0.303
Develop physical fitness	4.76	1.884	-0.530	-0.796
To relax physically	4.96	1.724	-0.739	-0.303
To relax mentally	5.25	1.670	-0.950	0.133
A/ the hustle of daily life	4.66	1.907	-0.529	-0.802
To rest	5.10	1.671	-0.752	-0.235
Relieve stress and tension	5.10	1.724	-0.835	-0.140
To unstructured my time	4.84	1.705	0.618	-0.323
Visiting beaches	5.40	1.599	-0.914	0.073
Visiting islands	5.24	1.772	-0.990	0.096
Visiting city attractions	5.27	1.624	-0.914	0.142
Going to casino	2.19	1.687	1.094	0.293
Going to a nightclub	2.32	1.804	1.016	-0.084
B/ traditional clothes	4.05	2.078	-0.039	-1.030
B/ traditional jewellerys	3.84	2.016	0.075	-1.087
B/ carving products	4.00	2.075	-0.745	-1.057
Mountain climbing	3.72	2.046	0.132	-1.046
Hunting	3.10	2.015	0.421	1.036
Camping	0.53	0.297	-0.627	-0.888
Dull image	5.91	0.952	-0.575	-0.293
Unpleasant image	5.77	0.899	-0.365	-0.505
Boring image	5.80	0.969	-0.628	0.185
Distressing image	5.80	1.112	-0.835	0.567

6.3 Pilot Study Findings

As stated in section 4.4, five experts from each of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) and Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) were kindly asked by the researcher to provide comments regarding the instrument and their suggestions were incorporated in the final survey instrument (see Appendix 1). The experts were also asked to identify the list of travel activities that they thought domestic and international travellers preferred to participate in when they are at various tourist attraction sites (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Popular Travel Activities Preferred By Tourists As Perceived by the Experts

Opinions from the tourism experts regarding the perceived preference for travel activities of tourists				
Experts number	Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources		Tanzania Tourist Board	
	International tourists	Domestic tourists	International tourists	Domestic tourists
1	Safari Beach M/climbing Hunting Cultural	Cultural Museum Beach City attractions Wildlife	Mountain climbing Safari Beach holiday Cultural tourism Photographic Historical sites Hunting VFR Conference Sports tourism Beach	Historical sites Photographic Safari Sports tourism Beach holiday Wildlife Cultural tourism Mountain climbing VFR Festival events
2	Wildlife M/climbing Beach tourism Sightseeing M/climbing	Game viewing Beach Cultural Purchasing traditional stuff	Swimming Visiting national parks Beach sports Visiting art gallery Cultural Photography taking Viewing natural vegetation	Mountain climbing National parks Historical sites Game driving

Opinions from the tourism experts regarding the perceived preference for travel activities of tourists				
3	National parks cultural Hunting Game viewing Beach	Festival Cultural M/climbing Beach	National park Historical sites Climbing mountain Museum Visiting beaches Carving products Traditional clothes Visiting islands	Beaches Museum Historical sites Island Traditional clothes Mountain climbing Visiting national parks Carving products Camping
4	Beach Festival Cultural Hunting Scuba diving Beach sports Safari Adventure	Beach Historical N/parks Cultural Traditional dances	Mountain climbing Beaches Historical sites Visiting islands Visiting	Sightseeing Historical sites Beaches
5	Wildlife Beach M/climbing Cultural Hunting	Beach Cultural Traditional dances Historical	Wildlife Mountain climbing Beach Cultural tourism	Visiting Beaches National parks Museums Historical

Source: Field Data (2013)

As Table 6.2 indicates, the experts from the Ministry of Tourism identified that activities such as wildlife viewing, beach tourism and mountain climbing were perceived to be among the activities preferred by international tourists, while beach tourism and cultural tourism, as well as visiting national parks were believed to be among the top three activities preferred by domestic tourists. On the other hand, Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) experts mentioned mountain climbing touring national parks and visiting beaches to be among the preferred activities by international tourists, while domestic tourists were perceived to prefer visiting beaches, historical sites and going to national parks. Due to a busy schedule, most of the experts failed to mention ten activities instead they were able to mention few of them.

Apart from the above activities, experts were also asked to provide their opinions by ranking the preferred activities based on the given list. As presented in appendix 4, experts from Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism reported that 80% of domestic tourists mostly prefer beach tourism, 20% prefer visiting islands and 20% prefer visiting city attractions. On the other travel market, the experts suggested that 60% of international tourists mostly prefer purchasing of carving products and 40% mostly prefer climbing mountains. TTB experts also presented their views regarding the ranking of tourist preferences. 40% of domestic tourists mostly prefer visiting beaches, purchasing of traditional clothes, mountain climbing, and camping. While, 20% of all international tourists mostly prefer visiting the beach, visiting islands, city attractions, traditional clothes, mountain climbing and camping.

Furthermore, the experts were also asked to highlight the reasons why they think tourists prefer less some of the activities. Based on their opinions, the experts believed that lack of interest and limited income are some of the reasons why domestic tourists prefer less of dining and shopping activities. It was also pointed out that lack of motivation was one among the reasons that caused less preference for visiting city attractions. Furthermore, activities such as casino and nightclub are among the least preferred activities among domestic tourists. Additionally, the experts also thought that these activities go against Tanzanian culture and thus, they are not part of Tanzanian's lifestyle.

After receiving comments from the experts, the generated survey was then piloted to 50 tourists in Tanzania as presented in Section 4.5. Over half of all the respondents failed to complete filling in the instrument. When asked why they could not complete the survey, they argued that the instrument was too long and required one to spend more than 45 minutes to complete it successfully. Also, some of the items were not clear. Based on the findings from the pilot study, the researcher decided to consult the literature again and looked for the

shortest version of the scale and clarity of the measurement items. The objective was to shorten the items without disturbing the intended research objectives and also to increase the response rate.

6.4 Tourist Demographic Characteristics

This section discusses the general tourist demographic traits of the sample collected for this study. The demographic characteristics of tourists (both domestic and international) were measured using their age, gender, marital status, education, family size, nationality, visitors' country of origin, income and their occupation. Respondents were given both closed and open-ended questions for them to provide their demographic characteristics. The summary of tourists' demographic characteristics is indicated in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Profile of Respondents

Variable	International frequency	Percent (%)	Domestic frequency	Percent (%)
Age:				
18-30	91	45.3	113	49.1
31-43	62	30.9	76	33.0
44-56	38	18.9	28	12.2
57+	10	04.9	13	05.7
Total	201	100	230	100
Gender:				
Male	125	62.2	143	62.2
Female	76	37.8	87	37.8
Total	201	100	230	100
Marital status:				
Single	94	46.8	119	51.7
Married	107	53.2	111	48.3
Total	201	100	230	100
Level of education:				
Primary	02	0.9	25	10.9
High school	21	10.4	31	13.5
Certificate	08	03.9	20	08.7
Diploma	27	13.4	27	11.7
University education and above	143	71.1	127	55.2
Total	201	100	230	100
Occupation:				
Employed	123	61.2	126	54.8
Unemployed	78	38.8	104	45.2

Variable	International frequency	Percent (%)	Domestic frequency	Percent (%)
Total	201	100	230	100
Nature of the work:				
Consultancy	19	09.5	30	13.1
Academic	32	15.9	24	10.4
Businessman/Businesswoman	65	32.4	32	13.9
Arts related activities	04	01.9	15	06.5
Others	81	40.3	129	56.1
Total	201	100	230	100
Family size (number of children)				
Large (3 children and above)	102	50.7	139	60.4
Small (0 to 2 children)	99	49.3	91	39.6
Total	201	100	230	100
Nationality:				
American	19	09.5	0.0	0.0
Asian	39	19.4	0.0	0.0
African	51	25.4	230	100
European	67	33.3	0.0	0.0
Oceania	25	12.4	0.0	0.0
Total	201	100	230	100
Country of origin:				
Argentina	01	0.5	00	00
Australia	15	7.5	00	00
Austria	02	0.9	00	00
Bangladesh	02	0.9	00	00
Belgium	03	0.5	00	00
Benin	01	0.5	00	00
Brazil	01	0.5	00	00
Cambodia	01	0.5	00	00
Canada	03	1.5	00	00
Chile	03	1.5	00	00
China	10	4.9	00	00
Comoro	02	0.9	00	00
Denmark	01	0.5	00	00
DRC	02	0.9	00	00
Finland	01	0.5	00	00
France	06	2.9	00	00
Germany	10	4.9	00	00
India	13	6.5	00	00
Italy	02	0.9	00	00
Japan	02	0.9	00	00
Kenya	15	7.5	00	00
Korea	02	0.9	00	00
Malawi	02	0.9	00	00
Mozambique	02	0.9	00	00
Namibia	01	0.5	00	00
Netherlands	01	0.5	00	00
New Zealand	07	3.5	00	00
Nigeria	01	0.5	00	00
Norway	06	2.9	00	00
Oman	02	0.9	00	00
Pakistan	04	1.9	00	00

Variable	International frequency	Percent (%)	Domestic frequency	Percent (%)
Palestine	01	0.5	00	00
Philippines	02	0.9	00	00
Poland	01	0.5	00	00
Rwanda	01	0.5	00	00
South Africa	20	9.9	00	00
Spain	01	0.5	00	00
Srilanka	02	0.9	00	00
Sweden	08	3.9	00	00
Switzerland	05	2.5	00	00
Taiwan	01	0.5	00	00
Tanzania	00	0.0	230	100
Uganda	04	1.9	00	00
UK	15	7.5	00	00
USA	14	6.9	00	00
Zimbabwe	01	0.5	00	00
Total	201	100	230	100
Monthly household income (\$):	19	09.5	132	57.4
Less than USD600	40	19.9	94	40.9
USD 601- 2999	50	24.9	04	01.7
USD 3000- 4999	67	33.3	00	00.0
USD 5000- 6999	25	12.4	00	00.0
USD 7000- or more				
Total	201	100	230	100

Source: Fieldwork (2013)

The overall descriptive statistics from Table 6.3 shows that the largest group of international tourists were from South Africa (9.9%), followed by tourists from UK (7.5%), Australia and Kenya (7.5%), USA (6.9%), India (6.5%), 4.9% for Germany and China and Sweden (3.9%), New Zealand (3.5%), 2.9% for France and Norway, Switzerland (2.5%), 1.9% for Pakistan and Uganda, Canada and Chile 1.5%. 0.9% of all the international tourists were from Austria, Bangladesh, Comoro, DRC, Italy, Japan, Korea, Malawi, Mozambique, Oman, Philippines, and Srilanka. An insignificant percentage (i.e., 0.5%) was covered by tourists from Argentina, Benin, Brazil, Cambodia, Denmark, Finland, Nigeria, Namibia, Netherlands, and Palestine.

Regarding the age range of the respondents, the age group between 18-30 was the largest group for both of the travel markets (49.1% for domestic tourist and 45.3% for international tourist), closely followed by those who were between 31-43 (30.9%) for international tourists

and (33%) for the local travel market and less than 10% of all tourists were reported to be senior tourists. The same pattern was reported by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism in the past surveys. Furthermore, 62% of all the respondents were males and less than 40% were females.

53.2% of all the international tourists were married and few of them were single, a different pattern was reported for the local travel market because over 50% of them were singles and only (48.3%) were reported to be married. In the context of Tanzania, married couples are constrained with family responsibilities. This is why only a few of them travel around for holiday and leisure.

When tourists' levels of education were examined, over 50% of all the tourists from the two travel markets had a university education and above. Over 10% of all the local tourists were reported to have a primary education and only less than 3% of all the international tourists were indicated to have only primary education as their highest level of education. For the case of visitors' occupation, the descriptive statistics indicates that over 50% of both travel markets were reported to be employed; about 38.2% for internationals and 45.2% of all the locals were reported to be unemployed. Most of the tourists for both of the travel markets work in different fields such as health, construction, administration, sports and so forth, followed by those who are businessmen/women.

The survey's results also shows that the majority of the international tourists have 3 children and above and only 39.6% of all the domestic tourists have fewer children. The results indicates that a good number of international tourists are economically active, who earns monthly income between USD 5000-6999, while on the other hand, most of the domestic tourists (i.e., over 50%) earns less than 600 USD per month.

The summary of the results from the descriptive analysis for the preference of travel activities is presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Preference for Travel Activities among Tourists

Tourist type		Travel Activity Rating by Tourists							Total
		Visiting beaches							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	0	9	10	29	47	58	77	n=230
	international	10	12	16	24	33	42	64	n=201
		Visiting Islands							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	14	9	10	28	45	59	65	n=230
	international	14	10	11	23	31	49	63	n=201
		Visiting City Attractions							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	0	7	5	28	38	72	80	n=230
	international	15	15	15	34	48	34	40	n=201
		Buying traditional clothes							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	24	16	28	34	37	38	53	n=230
	international	46	39	26	26	26	16	22	n=201
		Buying traditional jewelry							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	36	23	22	39	28	35	47	n=230
	international	61	30	16	36	16	16	16	n=201
		Buying of carving products							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	

Tourist type		Travel Activity Rating by Tourists							Total
Tourist type	Domestic	43	12	21	41	35	38	40	n=230
	international	41	26	28	34	25	20	27	n=201
		Going to casino							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	129	14	30	21	15	21	0	n=230
	international	128	20	10	10	26	7	0	n=201
		Going to a night club							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	125	16	22	20	20	14	13	n=230
	international	111	37	12	9	26	6	0	n=201
		Mountain climbing							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	63	148	27	29	32	21	40	n=230
	international	58	24	14	28	16	27	34	n=201
		Camping							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	55	12	20	26	35	33	49	n=230
	international	56	22	20	28	27	25	23	n=201
		Hunting							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Tourist type	Domestic	107	13	18	33	21	20	18	n=230
	international	78	18	3	25	36	25	16	n=201

Note: LSP= Least preferred, MU =Moderately Preferred, Little Preferred, N = Neutral, MP = Moderately Preferred, TMP = The Most Preferred.

Table 6.4 presents that the top three most preferred activities for both travel markets include visiting beaches (n=141), visiting islands (n=128) and visiting city attractions (n=120), while

casino (n=257) and visiting nightclubs (n=236) were reported to be amongst the least preferred activities.

Further analysis was done to reveal activity preferences from different countries. Appendix 5 presents the summary of activity preferences from different countries. First, the overall results indicate that a total of 141 tourists commented that they mostly prefer visiting beaches, whereby most of them were from Tanzania (54.6%), followed by those from South Africa (7.8%), UK (4.9%), Kenya (3.5%), USA (2.9%), and 2.1% for India and Australia.

Secondly, 128 of all visitors indicated that they mostly prefer visiting islands. This was the second preferred travel activity by most of the domestic visitors (n=65). International tourists who prefer this activity include those from South Africa (9.3%), UK (6.25%), 3.9% include tourists from USA and Kenya while 2.3% were from India.

A total of 120 tourists suggests that they mostly prefer visiting city attractions. This activity was reported to be the third preferred travel activity by 66.7% of local visitors. Tourists from other countries such as South Africa and Kenya (4.2%), Germany, India and UK (2.5%) and 1.7% of tourists from Australia, Chile, Pakistan, USA, Switzerland and Switzerland and Srilanka have also shown interest in this activity compared to those from Argentine, Bangladesh, Belgium, China, Japan, Mozambique, Nigeria, Norway, Philippine, Sweden and Taiwan.

Apart from indicating their preference level on the above activities, a good number of tourists (n=257) indicated that they do not prefer visiting casino as part of entertainment activities. For instance about 129 domestic tourists commented that they do not prefer visiting casinos. Other tourists who had similar comments were from South Africa and Australia (3.9%), USA

(3.5%), UK, Kenya and Germany (3.1%), New Zealand and India (2.7%), Sweden (2.3%), France (1.9%), China (1.6%) and Australia (0.8%).

236 of all tourists suggested that going to a nightclub was the second least preferred activity. Most of these tourists were locals (n=125) followed by those from South Africa (8%), UK, Sweden and Srilanka (7.2%), USA, India, Germany and Australia (6.4%), New Zealand and Kenya (4.8%), France (4%), Pakistan and China(3.2%) and from Switzerland, Chile and Canada (2.4%).

In addition to that, hunting was identified as the third least preferred activity by 185 tourists. Most of them were locals (57.8%), followed by those from South Africa (4.3%), UK, Kenya, India and Australia (3.2%), Germany (2.7%), USA, Sweden, New Zealand and China (2.2%), Norway and France (1.6%) and Uganda, Switzerland, Italy, DRC, Comoro, and Canada (1.1%).

6.4.1 Other Activities not included in the Survey

Apart from examining five travel activities presented in Table 6.5, tourists were given an open-ended question for them to fill in if they prefer a certain activity which was not listed in the survey. This was an option question, therefore tourist had a choice of responding to it or not. The results of the additional activities are presented in Table 6.5. The overall finding indicates that 3.8% of respondents, from DRC, South Africa, Australia, Germany and the UK showed interest in visiting local communities.

Another activity which was found to be crucial to international tourist was scuba diving. 3.2% of respondents from South Africa, Italy, Germany and DRC claimed they enjoy participating in this activity. Apart from scuba diving, walking tours were the next preferred activity to tourists from Switzerland, Australia, and Mozambique. Moving away from these

activities, 1.3% of tourists from Kenya and Spain show more interest in bird watching and rafting, while 1.3% of tourists from Australia and Germany declared to have a passion for boat cruising. While 1.3% of all the tourists from Norway and Australia prefer taking pictures than any other activities.

1.3% of tourists from Asian countries such as China, Pakistan and India have indicated that they prefer learning about the Tanzania's culture and traditions. In line with this, international tourists also indicated that they prefer watching traditional dance, fishing, sports activities, visiting friends and relatives, visiting art gallery, museum, walking the streets and taking part in water sports games. 0.5% of domestic tourists, on the other hand,, indicated that they preferred bird watching, shopping, walking tours, scuba diving, reading books and watching football games.

Table 6.5 Other Preferred Travel Activities by Country of Origin

Activity	Domestic tourist (%)	International tourist (%)	Country of origin
Bird watching	0.5	1.3	Kenya & Spain
Boat cruising	0	1.3	Australia & Germany
Cultural experience	0	0.6	China
Dancing traditional music	0	0.6	New Zealand
Fishing	0	1.3	UK
Game driving	0	0.6	Australia
Jogging	0.5	0	None
Learning local language	0	1.3	Brazil, UK
Learning local tradition	0	1.3	Germany, Pakistan
Rafting	0	1.3	Kenya, Germany
Reading books	0.5	0	None
Scuba diving	0.5	3.2	South Africa, DRC, Italy, Germany
Shopping	0.5	0	None
Sports activities	0	0.6	Kenya
Surfing	0	0.6	Germany
Swimming	0.5	1.3	Oman, Denmark
Taking pictures	0	1.3	Norway, Australia
VFR	0	0.6	South Africa
Visiting art gallery	0	0.6	South Africa
Visiting local community	0	3.8	DRC, South Africa, Australia, Germany, UK
Visiting museum	0	0.6	Mexico

Activity	Domestic tourist (%)	International tourist (%)	Country of origin
Walking in the streets	0	0.6	France
Walking tours	0.5	1.9	Switzerland, Australia & Mozambique
Watching football	0.5	0	None
Watching traditional dance	0	1.3	India, South Africa
Water sports	0	0.6	Malawi
	n=215	n=158	

Source: Field work, 2013

Overall, the results indicated that tourists from different countries have preferences for different activities. For instance, tourists from African and Asian countries prefer sightseeing and shopping activities, those from European, Oceania, North and South American countries prefer sightseeing followed by outdoors activities.

6.5 Reliability Results

Internal consistency reliability for the scale items was tested using Cronbach's alpha and item to total correlations. The resulting alpha values ranged from 0.986 to 0.720 which were above the acceptable threshold (0.70) as suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998). The analysis indicates that if items such as camping, visiting city attractions and to develop a close friendship with others (see Table 6.6) are deleted the Cronbach's alpha values will increase to .833, .801, and .894, from .776, .784, and .753 respectively. However, items such as camping and visiting city attractions were not deleted because of the requirements of multivariate technique such as SEM, but the last item was deleted because the construct Stimulus Avoidance (SA) had more than three items (i.e., the minimum required a number of items in SEM). This technique works effectively when a construct is represented by at least three items. The construct with less than three items may cause model identification problem (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tang *et al.*, 2012). For a summary of the reliability, results see Table 6.6.

Table 6.6 Reliability Results

Scale	Variable	Scale if mean item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Neurotic personality (NR)	Get easily upset (NR1)	3.69	0.797	-	0.887
	Gets nervous easily (NR2)	3.61	0.797	-	
Closed to new experience personality (CL)	Conventional (CL1)	3.94	0.973	-	0.986
	Uncreative (CL2)	4.06	0.973	-	
Intellectual motivation (IL)	To expand new ideas (IL3)	11.52	0.780	0.702	0.841
	To expand my knowledge (IL4)	11.17	0.626	0.851	
	To satisfy my curiosity (IL8)	11.48	0.719	0.765	
Social motivation (SO)	To interact with others (SO2)	10.02	0.675	0.844	0.854
	To be socially competent and skillful (SO6)	10.23	0.801	0.724	
	To gain a feeling of belonging (SO7)	10.55	0.719	0.811	
Mastery competency motivation (MC)	To challenge my abilities (MC1)	10.37	0.556	0.639	0.720
	To be active (MC4)	10.21	0.678	0.490	
	To develop physical fitness (MC8)	11.06	0.472	0.798	
Stimulus avoidance motivation (SA)	To develop close friendship with others (SA3)	20.30	0.753	0.894	0.910
	To relax mentally (SA4)	20.00	0.771	0.891	
	To rest (SA6)	20.15	0.767	0.891	
	To relieve tension and stress (SA7)	20.15	0.822	0.880	
	To unstructured my time (SA 8)	20.42	0.749	0.895	
Sightseeing activities (ST)	Visiting beaches (ST1)	10.51	0.694	0.634	0.784
	Visiting islands (ST2)	10.68	0.654	0.675	
	Visiting city attractions (ST3)	10.64	0.532	0.801	
Entertainment activities (ET)	Casino (ET1)	2.32	0.890	-	0.941
	Nightclub (ET2)	2.19	0.890	-	
Outdoors activities (OD)	Mountain climbing (OD1)	6.99	0.714	0.638	0.796
		7.61	0.681	0.678	
	Hunting (OD2)	6.81	0.530	0.833	
	Camping (OD3)				

Scale	Variable	Scale if mean item deleted	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Shopping activities (SP)	Traditional clothes (SP1)	7.84	0.730	0.810	0.861
	Buying traditional jewelry (SP2)	8.05	0.789	0.754	
	Buying of carving products (SP3)	7.89	0.693	0.844	
Destination image items (AI)	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is dull/stimulating (AI1)	17.37	0.628	0.749	0.803
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination offers unpleasant/pleasant destination (AI2)	17.51	0.580	0.772	
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is boring/exciting (AI3)	17.48	0.656	0.735	
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is distressing/relaxing (AI4)	17.48	0.618	0.758	

6.6 Validity Results

6.6.1 Content Validity

Content validity of the survey instrument was examined in this study. All of the research scales for the study were adopted and validated by previous researchers as indicated in the literature review chapter (see paragraph 4.3). With satisfactory content validity at hand, the observed items were further tested for consistency, easy of understanding, and for the appropriateness by the members of the academic staff together with the tourist experts. The comments received from the experts were accommodated in the final survey see Appendix 2.

6.6.2 Construct Validity

All the research constructs for this study were subjected to CFA. In this study, all three types of the goodness of fit indices indicated that the overall model produced satisfactory results as most of the goodness of fit indices such as chi-square (χ^2) was 946.280 with 442 degrees of freedom. The value of χ^2/df was 2.1, $p=.000$, TLI=.927, PNFI=.747, PCFI=.786, RMSEA=.052 were within the acceptable threshold of 3 as discussed by Hair *et al.*(2010) and Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, (2006), except for NFI indices which were at the marginal level as presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for all the Scales

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	946.280	
	df	442	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	2.1**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.927**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.939**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.893*	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.747**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.786**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.052**	$< 0.06 - .008$
*(Marginal) ** (acceptable), *** (unacceptable)			

Furthermore, construct validity was also examined using composite reliability (CR) and average variance (AVE). The overall findings indicate that CR and AVE surpassed the threshold values of .70 and .50, respectively (Yap & Khong, 2006). The summary of the results is presented in Table 6.8. Therefore, it can be concluded that the indicators for all the constructs met the reliability thresholds and therefore qualified for further analyses.

6.6.3 Convergent Validity

The first order CFA model was performed to assess this type of validity. The findings indicate that the standardised factor loadings for all the items were above the acceptable

range of 0.5 as indicated by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). On top of that, all the composite reliabilities (CR) and average variance explained (AVE) were above the recommended value of 0.7 and 0.5 respectively, see paragraph 6.6.4.

6.6.4 Discriminant Validity Results

Discriminant validity was assessed using Fornell and Lacker's' approach of 1981. In order to achieve discriminant validity AVE of each construct was compared with the shared variance between two constructs. For all the items the AVE was higher than the shared variance (MSV). In other words, a comparison was made in a correlation matrix (off-diagonal values) were compared with the square roots of AVE for each of the constructs (values along the diagonal). For adequate discriminant to be attained, the diagonal values should be greater than the off-diagonal values in the corresponding rows and columns. After examining the overall results, it was found that all the constructs had acceptable discriminant validity as presented in Table 6.8. Thus, one can conclude that the constructs in the proposed framework (Figure 3.1) are valid and distinct from each other.

Table 6.8 Validity Results

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	SP	SA	OD	CL	SO	MC	ST	AI	IL	ET	NR
SP	0.863	0.679	0.187	0.052	0.824										
SA	0.910	0.671	0.127	0.054	0.273	0.819									
OD	0.808	0.590	0.054	0.021	0.181	0.072	0.768								
CL	0.986	0.972	0.042	0.009	-0.058	-0.125	0.085	0.986							
SO	0.863	0.678	0.240	0.074	0.308	0.356	0.105	-0.075	0.824						
MC	0.781	0.553	0.296	0.081	0.183	0.295	0.223	0.016	0.490	0.744					
ST	0.796	0.568	0.187	0.061	0.432	0.354	0.148	-0.107	0.237	0.257	0.754				

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	SP	SA	OD	CL	SO	MC	ST	AI	IL	ET	NR
AI	0.806	0.510	0.041	0.017	0.163	0.144	-0.029	-0.017	0.078	0.176	0.202	0.714			
IL	0.848	0.653	0.296	0.071	0.152	0.236	0.155	-0.010	0.433	0.544	0.308	0.146	0.808		
ET	0.945	0.897	0.054	0.013	0.193	0.081	0.232	0.025	0.086	-0.052	0.066	0.026	-0.084	0.947	
NR	0.898	0.817	0.042	0.011	0.090	0.141	0.057	0.205	0.058	0.039	-0.032	-0.153	0.010	0.105	0.904

Note: IL = Intellectual motivation; NR= Neurotic personality; ST=Sightseeing activities; AI=Affective destination image; MC=Mastery competency motivation; CL=Closed to new experience personality; ET=Entertainment activities; MSV= Maximum shared variance; SA=Stimulus avoidance motivation; CR=Composite reliability; OD= Outdoor activities; ASVE=Average shared variance; SO=Social motivation; AVE=Average variance explained; SP= Shopping activities. Diagonal values in bold are square roots of AVE, values and the values below the diagonal indicates the corrections between different constructs.

6.7 Hypothesis Testing

6.7.1 Hypothesis One: MANOVA

This study examined differences in terms of preference for travel activities among tourists based on their marital status, occupation, and their family size. The differences were tested based on the hypotheses generated in former chapters (see H_{1a}-H_{1c}). MANOVA was adopted to test these hypotheses. Independent variables are marital status, occupation and family size and dependent variable include eleven travel activities. A series of steps was attempted to examine these hypotheses. First, a series of Pearson correlation were carried out between all of the dependent variables to assess the extent to which the dependent variables are correlated. Later on, MANOVA was performed to assess whether there is a significant difference of the independent variables on all of the dependent variable. Afterwards, a univariate ANOVA test was performed to determine the effects of each of the independent variable on the dependent variable.

6.7.2 MANOVA Results

Before conducting the MANOVA, a series of Pearson correlation analysis were performed between all dependent variables in order to assess the strength of the correlations among dependent variables. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a correlation value of 0.60 or

closer to this is regarded as the desired value for a researcher to use MANOVA. As can be seen in Table 6.9 reasonable patterns of correlations were observed amongst most of the dependent variables, indicating the appropriateness of employing MANOVA.

Table 6.9 Pearson Correlations Results

Correlations											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	1										
2	.672**	1									
3	.509**	.466**	1								
4	.051	.048	.057	1							
5	.053	.058	.076	.890**	1						
6	.226**	.241**	.325**	.158**	.136**	1					
7	.316**	.295**	.296**	.178**	.157**	.731**	1				
8	.266**	.309**	.249**	.131**	.103*	.606**	.682**	1			
9	.066	.157**	.165**	.155**	.148**	.162**	.124*	.187**	1		
10	.018	.115*	.077	.247**	.244**	.090	.079	.144**	.714**	1	
11	.074	.066	.157**	.167**	.172**	.146**	.089	.109*	.512**	.469**	1

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), N= 431,
1=Vising beaches, 2= Visiting islands, 3= Visiting city attractions, 4= Going to casino, 5= Going to nightclub, 6=Buying of traditional clothes, 7= Buying of traditional jewelries, 8= Buying of carving products, 9= Mountain climbing, 10= Hunting, 11=Camping.

MANOVA was employed to test a factorial design. A factorial design consists of three demographic factors (Tourist occupation, marital status, and family size) and eleven travel activities preferences. This technique helps the researcher to test which of the independent variable accounts more in predicting the dependent variable. Hair *et al.* (2010) that this

technique gives a chance to examine the simultaneous comparison of group mean differences on several dependent variables.

Box's M test of equality of covariance matrices was significant ($p < .000$), this imply that the assumption of equality of covariance matrices was not met. Therefore, the decision was made to use the Pillai trace and the multivariate F test was employed.

There was a significant difference between tourist occupation and travel activities. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was obtained, Pillai's trace = .064, $F(11, 413) = 2.58$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .064$, which implies that 64% of the variance in the travel activities was accounted for by the tourist occupation status. When the effect of other demographic factors such as marital status and family size were examined the results were not significant. The Multivariate results for the other demographic factors were as follows. For the family size, the Pillai's Trace was .037, $F(11, 413) = 1.434$, $p = .155$ and for marital status the Pillai's Trace = .042, $F(11, 413) = 1.658$, $p = .081$, $\eta^2 = .042$. Furthermore, the interaction effect between variables was examined; however, none of them show significant results. Interaction between Marital status and family size; Pillai = .027, $F(11, 413) = 1.024$, $p = .424$, Marital status and occupation Pillai = .036, $F(11, 413) = 1.399$, $p = .170$, Family size and occupation; Pillai = .043, $F(11, 413) = 1.668$, $p = .078$, Marital status and Family size and Occupation Pillai = .034, $F(11, 413) = 1.324$, $p = .208$. The results summary is indicated in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 Multivariate Test Results

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.945	649.353 ^b	11.000	413.000	.000	.945
	Wilks' Lambda	.055	649.353 ^b	11.000	413.000	.000	.945
	Hotelling's Trace	17.295	649.353 ^b	11.000	413.000	.000	.945
	Roy's Largest Root	17.295	649.353 ^b	11.000	413.000	.000	.945
OC	Pillai's Trace	.064	2.588 ^b	11.000	413.000	.003	.064
	Wilks' Lambda	.936	2.588 ^b	11.000	413.000	.003	.064
	Hotelling's Trace	.069	2.588 ^b	11.000	413.000	.003	.064
	Roy's Largest Root	.069	2.588 ^b	11.000	413.000	.003	.064
FS	Pillai's Trace	.037	1.434 ^b	11.000	413.000	.155	.037
	Wilks' Lambda	.963	1.434 ^b	11.000	413.000	.155	.037
	Hotelling's Trace	.038	1.434 ^b	11.000	413.000	.155	.037
	Roy's Largest Root	.038	1.434 ^b	11.000	413.000	.155	.037
MS	Pillai's Trace	.042	1.658 ^b	11.000	413.000	.081	.042
	Wilks' Lambda	.958	1.658 ^b	11.000	413.000	.081	.042
	Hotelling's Trace	.044	1.658 ^b	11.000	413.000	.081	.042
	Roy's Largest Root	.044	1.658 ^b	11.000	413.000	.081	.042
OC * FS	Pillai's Trace	.043	1.668 ^b	11.000	413.000	.078	.043
	Wilks' Lambda	.957	1.668 ^b	11.000	413.000	.078	.043
	Hotelling's Trace	.044	1.668 ^b	11.000	413.000	.078	.043
	Roy's Largest Root	.044	1.668 ^b	11.000	413.000	.078	.043
OC * MS	Pillai's Trace	.036	1.399 ^b	11.000	413.000	.170	.036
	Wilks' Lambda	.964	1.399 ^b	11.000	413.000	.170	.036
	Hotelling's Trace	.037	1.399 ^b	11.000	413.000	.170	.036
	Roy's Largest Root	.037	1.399 ^b	11.000	413.000	.170	.036
FS * MS	Pillai's Trace	.027	1.024 ^b	11.000	413.000	.424	.027
	Wilks' Lambda	.973	1.024 ^b	11.000	413.000	.424	.027
	Hotelling's Trace	.027	1.024 ^b	11.000	413.000	.424	.027
	Roy's Largest Root	.027	1.024 ^b	11.000	413.000	.424	.027
OC * FS * MS	Pillai's Trace	.034	1.324 ^b	11.000	413.000	.208	.034
	Wilks' Lambda	.966	1.324 ^b	11.000	413.000	.208	.034
	Hotelling's Trace	.035	1.324 ^b	11.000	413.000	.208	.034
	Roy's Largest Root	.035	1.324 ^b	11.000	413.000	.208	.034

After conducting MANOVA, the next step followed was to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the eleven travel activities. Based on the results as indicated in Table 6.11, the homogeneity of variance assumption was attained, even though two of the Levene's F test were statistically significant ($p \leq .005$).

Table 6.11 Levene's' Results

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances				
	F	$df1$	$df2$	$Sig.$
Visiting beaches	1.230	7	423	.285
Visiting islands	1.314	7	423	.242
Visiting city attractions	1.270	7	423	.263
Going to casino	5.015	7	423	.000
Going to nightclub	4.806	7	423	.000
Buying traditional clothes	.921	7	423	.490
Buying traditional jewelries	1.116	7	423	.352
Buying of carving products	.492	7	423	.841
Mountain climbing	.832	7	423	.561
Hunting	1.477	7	423	.174
Camping	.472	7	423	.855
Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.				
a. Design: Intercept + OC + FS + MS + OC * FS + OC * MS + FS * MS + OC * FS * MS				

The results of uni-variate ANOVA (see Appendix 6) indicated that there was significant differences between tourist occupation and preference for visiting beaches $F(1,13.143) = 5.157$, $p = .024$, Partial Eta = .012; visiting islands $F(1,17.088) = 5.501$, $p = .019$, Partial Eta = .013; and buying traditional clothes $F(1,28.086) = 6.682$, $p = .010$, Partial Eta = .016. However, the difference was not significant for activities such as visiting city attractions $F(1,.318) = 0.120$, $p = .729$; visiting casino $F(1,.016) = 0.006$, $p = .939$; visiting nightclubs $F(1,.737) = 0.227$, $p = .634$; buying traditional jewelries $F(1,1.943) = 0.423$, $p = .516$; buying of

carving products $F(1,5.751) = 1.350$, $p=.246$; mountain climbing $F(1,1.302) = 0.261$, $p=.609$; hunting $F(1,.003)=0.001$, $p=.981$ and camping $F(1,14.068) = 2.869$, $p=.091$.

Further analysis was done to detect whether the differences between travel activities and tourist occupation was insignificant or significant. The estimated marginal means was performed with the intention of identifying the interaction effect between occupation*tourist on travel activities. The overall finding indicates that both employed and unemployed domestic tourists had high mean values for activities such as visiting beaches and buying of traditional clothes compared to employed and unemployed international tourists. In addition to that, the employed domestic tourist had high mean value for visiting islands compared to employed international tourist. At the same time, the unemployed international tourist had high mean values for the same activity compared to unemployed domestic tourist. For the summary of the results see Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Estimated Marginal Means for the Interaction Effects

Dependent variable	Occupation	Tourist type	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence interval	
Visiting beaches	Employed	Domestic	5.865	.140	5.589	6.141
		International	5.220	.142	4.940	5.499
	Un-employed	Domestic	5.260	.155	4.956	5.563
		International	5.141	.179	4.790	5.492
Visiting islands	Employed	Domestic	5.516	.157	5.207	5.825
		International	5.252	.159	4.939	5.565
	Un-employed	Domestic	4.933	.173	4.593	5.273
		International	5.167	.200	4.774	5.559
Buying traditional clothes	Employed	Domestic	4.397	.177	4.049	4.744
		International	3.252	.179	2.900	3.604
	Unemployed	Domestic	4.865	.195	4.483	5.248
		International	3.667	.225	3.225	4.108

The overall finding indicates that after testing hypothesis one (H_{1a} to H_{1c}) only hypothesis H_{1b} was accepted while the remaining hypotheses were not accepted. Table 6.13 presents the summary of the results

Table 6.13 Summary of Hypothesis one Results

Variable	Hypothesis	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Hypotheses status
Marital status (MS)	H _{1a} :	1.658	.081*	No
Occupation status (OC)	H _{1b} :	2.588	.003**	Yes
Family size (FS)	H _{1c} :	1.434	.155*	No

*Note: ** (Supported at $p > 0.001$), * (Not supported)*

6.8 SEM-Measurement Model

First order CFA was employed to test the relationships between latent constructs and their observed variables. A measurement model specifies the extent to which the observed variables are related to the latent variables (Shammout, 2007). CFA was done for each construct separately before testing the full structural model for each group. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), confirmatory measurement models should be assessed and re-specified before testing the structural models. The following sections discussed the results of measurement and structural models.

6.8.1 Measurement Model

Measurement Model for the Travel Motivation Indicators

The construct travel motivation was measured using four subscales, adapted from Beard and Ragheb (1983). The construct stimulus avoidance travel motivation was measured using five items, social travel motivation was measured using three items, intellectual travel motivation

was measured using three items and finally mastery competency travel motivation was measured using three items (see Table 6.14). A total of twelve travel motivation items were subjected to CFA to test the relationships between indicators and the constructs.

Table 6.14 Travel Motivation Items

Construct	Items	Item label
Stimulus Avoidance travel motivation(SA)	To relax physically	SA3
	To relax mentally	SA4
	To rest	SA6
	To relieve stress and tension	SA7
	To unstructured my time	SA8
Social travel motivation (SO)	To interact with others	SO2
	To be socially competent and skillful	SO6
	To gain a feeling of belonging	SO7
Intellectual travel motivation (IL)	To explore new ideas	IL3
	To expand new knowledge	IL4
	To satisfy my curiosity	IL8
Mastery competency travel motivation (MC)	To challenge my abilities	MC1
	To be active	MC4
	To develop physical fitness	MC8

The results of the initial CFA estimation for the travel motivation factors did not provide a satisfactory result. The examination of the modification index for this model indicates the presence of a large modification index between error term e4 and e5. The model fit also indicates that the data is not a good fit for the model. The χ^2/df was 4.97 greater than the acceptable level of 3.0 as pointed out by Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, (2006) and Hair *et al.* (2010). RMSEA was 0.96, which was also above the acceptable range of 0.80. Therefore, based on the results of the modification index the SA3 was removed from the measurement model, and the model was re-specified and tested again. The overall initial results are presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15 Models Fit Indices for the Initial Travel Motivation

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	353.214	
	df	71	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	4.97***	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.895*	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.918**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.900**	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.702**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.716**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.096***	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 =Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

Afterwards, the model was re-specified for the second time, and the results were still not satisfactory as the value of χ^2/df was 4.0 and RMSEA were 0.85. The assessment of the modification index shows a large value of modification indexes between MC8 and SO7. Furthermore, a high standardised residual value of 2.839 and 4.793 was indicated between item MC8 and SO6 and between MC8 and SO7 respectively. Furthermore, the values of standardised residuals were above the threshold level of +/- 2.58 as reported by Hair *et al.* (2010). Therefore, MC8 was removed and the model was re-specified for the last time. The overall results of the modified model are presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for the Modified Travel Motivation

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	241.667	
	df	59	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	4.0***	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.920**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.939**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.957**	$\geq .90$

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Parsimonious	PNFI	.697**	≥ .50
	PCFI	.711**	≥ .50
Others	RMSEA	.085***	< 0.06 - .008
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative, Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

After deleting MC 8 the model was assessed for the last time. Apart from chi-square (χ^2) which was 136.872 with a degree of freedom 48 and significant value of p , the overall results implied that the model has the absolute, comparative and parsimonious goodness of fit. In short, the result from the final model indicates that the data was a good fit to the model as presented in Table 6.17. Most of the goodness of fit indices was within the acceptable limits as specified by Hair *et al.* (2010) and Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, (2006).

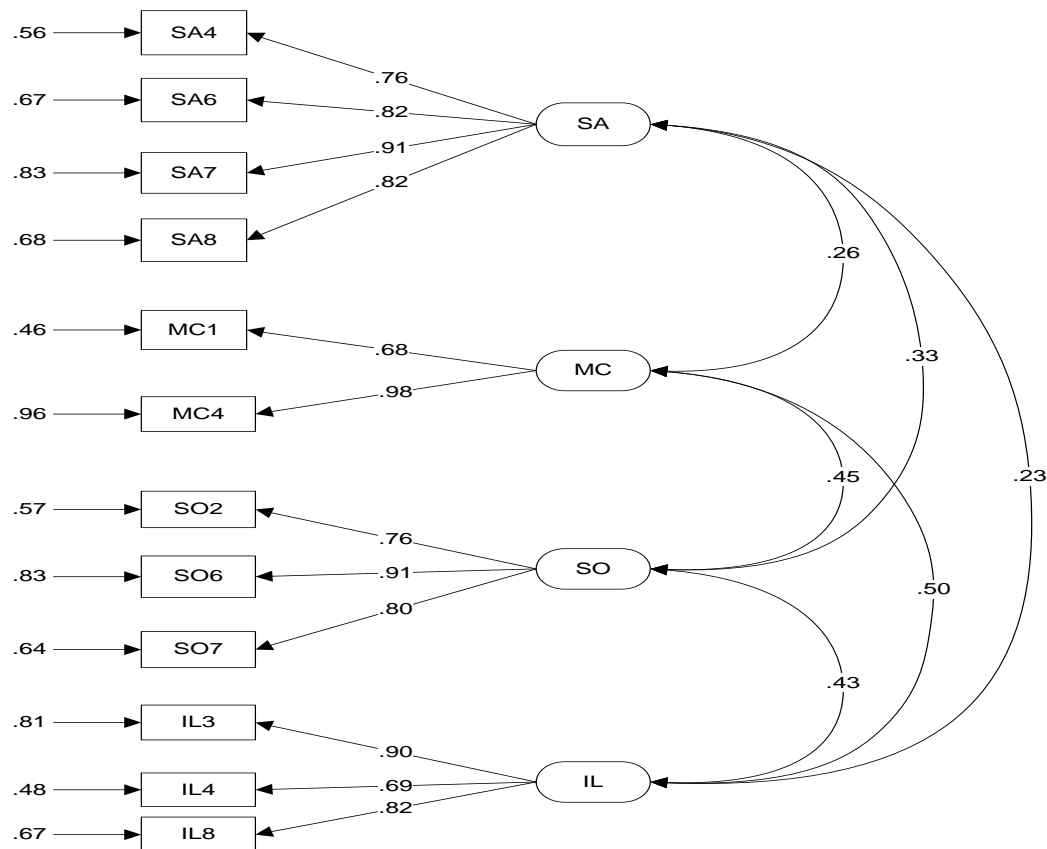
Table 6.17 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for the Final Travel Motivation

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	136.872	
	df	48	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	2.851**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.956**	≥ .95 or ≥ .90
	CFI	.968**	≥ .95 or ≥ .90
	NFI	.952**	≥ .90
Parsimonious	PNFI	.692**	≥ .50
	PCFI	.704**	≥ .50
Others	RMSEA	.066**	< 0.06 - .008
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

In addition to the model fit indices, the findings also indicate that all of the standardised factor loadings for each of the indicator for the construct were above the acceptable cut- off point of

0.50 (see Figure 6.1), and all the hypothesised paths between indicators and latent construct were significant at $p \leq 0.01$.

Figure 6.1 CFA for Travel Motivation Measurement Model



Note: SA = Stimulus Avoidance, MC = Mastery Competency, SO = Social, IL = Intellectual

6.8.2 Measurement Model for Personality Items

CFA was conducted to measure the relationships between neurotic personalities, and closed to new experience personality items with the latent variables. The construct personality was measured using two subscales, each with two items (see Table 6.18).

Table 6.18 Personality Items

Construct	Items	Item label
Neurotic personality (NR)	Gets nervous easily	NR1
	Gets upset easily	NR2
Closed to new experience personality (CL)	Conventional	CL1
	Uncreative	CL2

The model was tested for the first time and two error terms (i.e., e1 and e3 were reported to have a negative variance. According to Hair *et al.* (2010) if it happens that there is a Heywood case, one of the options to treat them is to constrain the error term to a value of 0.005, therefore both of the cases were treated using this technique, afterwards, the model was assessed. The results of the model provide satisfactory results as most of the model fit were within the acceptable range as indicated in Table 6.19.

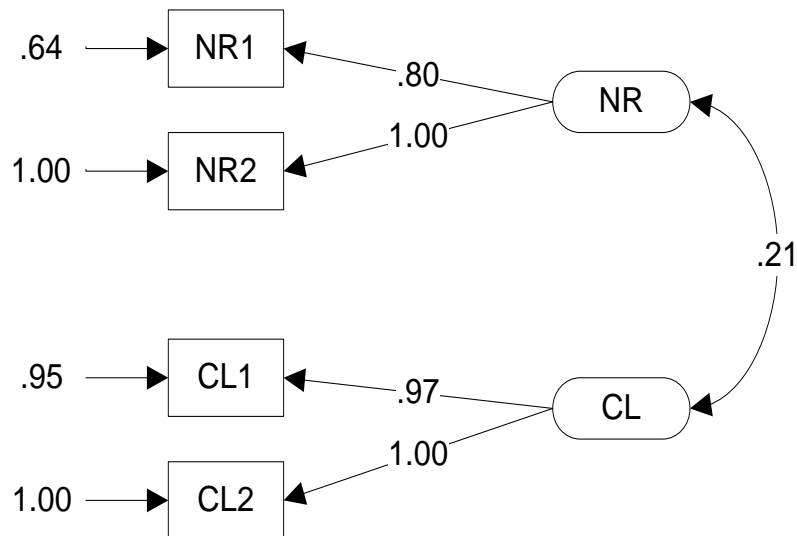
Table 6.19 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for Personality

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	6.289	
	df	3	
	p	.098	
	χ^2/df	2.09**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.996**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.998**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.996**	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.498*	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.499*	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.050**	$< 0.06 - .008$

Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation

The results further indicated that the standardised factor loadings for each observed variable for the construct were above the acceptable level of 0.50 (see Figure 6.2). Additionally, the values of the standardised residuals for the model had values below the threshold point of +/- 2.58. Overall, this model shows that the data were a good fit to the model.

Figure 6.2 CFA for Personality Measurement Model



6.8.3 Measurement Model for Travel Activities Items

Preference for travel activities was measured using eleven items; three items for shopping and outdoor activities, four for sightseeing activities and two for the entertainment activities (see Table 6.20).

Table 6.20 Travel Activity Items

Construct	Items	Item label
Sightseeing activities (ST)	Visiting beaches	ST1
	Visiting islands	ST2
	Visiting city attractions	ST3
Shopping (SP)	Buying of traditional clothes	SP1
	Buying of traditional jewelry	SP2
	Buying of carving products	SP3

Construct	Items	Item label
Outdoors activities (OD)	Mountain climbing	OD1
	Hunting	OD2
	Camping	OD3
Entertainment activities (ET)	Going to casino	ET1
	Going to a nightclub	ET2

The CFA results indicate satisfactory results, for example, the χ^2 value (74.023 with 38 degrees of freedom) has a statistical significance $p = .000$. This test failed to support that the differences between the actual and predicted models were non-significant. However, it is generally acknowledged that the χ^2 should not be used as a guideline to assess the model; other indices were employed to examine the model fit. Other fit indices indicated an acceptable fit with the data ($\chi^2/df=1.948$, GFI=.969, TLI=.977, CFI=.984, NFI=.968, PNFI=.669, PCFI=.680). The summary of the results are presented in Table 6.21.

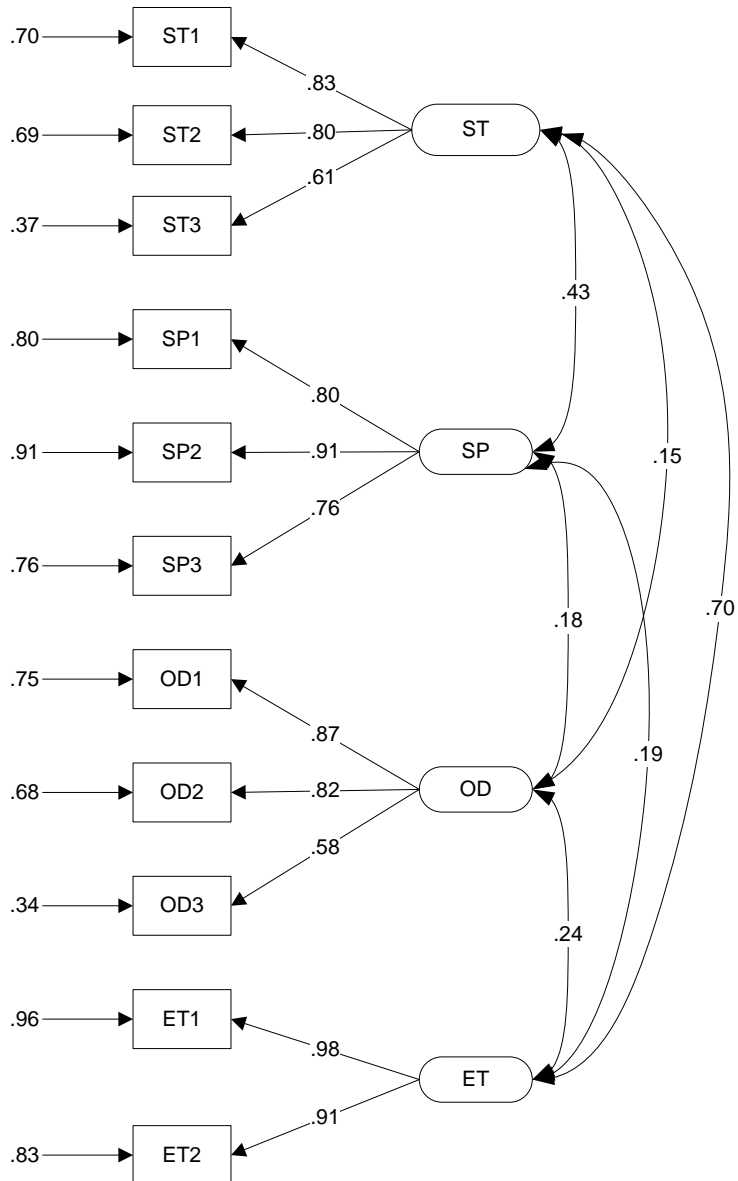
Table 6.21 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for Travel Activity Measurement Model

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	74.023	
	df	38	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	1.948**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.977**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.984**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.968**	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.669**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.680**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.047**	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

The result also indicated that all the standardised parameters were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) and all of the standardised factor loadings for each observed variable for the construct

were above the acceptable level of 0.50 as indicated in Figure 6.3. Further inspection of the standardised residual and modification indexes confirmed that there was no problem because all the values were within the acceptable threshold values.

Figure 6.3 CFA for Travel Activity



6.8.4 Measurement model for the destination image items

CFA was performed to test destination image items, four items were used in the analysis as presented in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22 Destination Image Items

Construct	Items	Item label
Affective destination Image (AI)	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is dull/stimulating	AI1
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is unpleasant/pleasant	AI2
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is boring/exciting	AI3
	The image of Tanzania as a tourist destination is distressing/relaxing	AI4

The initial estimation did not provide a satisfactory result as the χ^2/df was 29.138; the value was greater than the acceptable value of 3.0 as pointed out by Hair *et al.* (2010) and Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, (2006). RMSEA was 0.178 way beyond the acceptable value of 0.08, PNFI and PCFI were below the acceptable value of 0.50. After inspecting the MI, it was found that two error terms (i.e., e1 and e3) were highly correlated so based on this information, AI2 was removed from the analysis to allow the model to attain good fit. The initial results for this model are presented in Table 6.23.

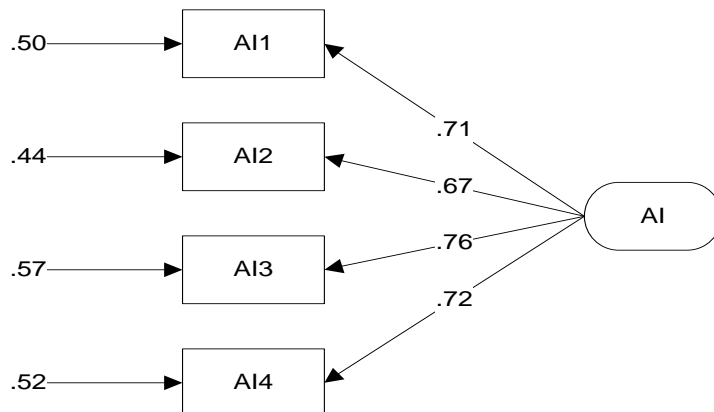
Table 6.23 Summary of the Model Fit Indices for the Destination Image Model

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	29.138	
	df	2	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	14.569***	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.851*	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.950**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.947**	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.316***	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.317***	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.178**	$< 0.06 - .008$

Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI= Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation

The result further indicated that all the standardised parameters were statistically significant at ($p < 0.01$) and all of the standardised factor loadings for each observed variable for the construct were above the acceptable level of 0.50 as indicated in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4 Destination Image Measurement Model



Note: AI = Affective destination image

6.9 Structural Model

After making sure that the measurement models were reliable and valid, the next step followed was to assess the structural models. The measurement model results indicate satisfactory

model fit, and significant factor loading produces evidence of convergent and constructs validity as indicated in Table 6.8. Also, all the measurement models attained acceptable construct reliability, thus giving a chance for the researcher to continue testing the structural model. The structural model examines the relationships among different constructs as stipulated in the conceptual model (Figure 3.1). Therefore, the main objective of using SEM in this study was to examine the hypothesised relationship (H2-H7) for the two travel market separately. In brief, all of the hypothesised relationships were tested for each group independently. Table 6.24 shows the hypothesised relationships tested for each group.

Table 6.24 Hypotheses for the Structural Equation Modeling

Hypotheses	Attributes
H2a: SO to AI	Social travel motivation positively influences destination image
H2b: SA to AI	Stimulus avoidance travel motivation positively influences destination image
H2c: MC to AI	Mastery competency travel motivation positively influences destination image
H2d: IL to AI	Intellectual travel motivation positively influences destination image
H3a: NR to AI	There is a negative relationship between neurotic personality and destination image
H3b: CL to AI	There is a positive relationship between closed to new experience personality and affective destination image
H4a: SO to ST	There is positive relationship between social travel motivation and sightseeing activities
H4b:SO to ET	There is positive relationship between social travel motivation and entertainment activities
H4c: SA to ST	There is positive relationship between stimulus avoidance travel motivation and sightseeing activities
H4d: MC to OD	There is positive relationship between mastery competency travel motivation and outdoors activities
H4e:IL to ST	There is positive relationship between intellectual travel motivation and sightseeing activities
H5a: NR to SP	There is positive relationship between neurotic personality and shopping activities
H5b: NR to ST	There is positive relationship between neurotic personality and sightseeing activities
H5c: CL to SP	There is positive relationship between closed to new experience personality and

Hypotheses	Attributes
	shopping activities
H6a: AI to ST	There is positive relationship between destination image and sightseeing activities
H6b: AI to OD	There is positive relationship between destination image and outdoors activities
H6c: AI to SP	There is positive relationship between destination image and shopping activities
H6d: AI to ET	There is positive relationship between destination image and entertainment activities
H7a:	Destination image mediates the relationship between travel motivation and preference for travel activities
H7b:	Destination image mediates the relationship between personality and preference for travel activities

In testing for SEM model, the first step involved testing the model for each travel market without the mediating variable. The aim was to test the direct path between endogenous variable i.e., preference for travel activity and exogenous variables i.e., personality and travel motivations, also it was aimed to establish whether the causal effects between variables was not influenced by the destination image as a mediating variable. Finally, the mediating variable was added into the initial model to test its indirect effects. The following subsection presents the results for each structural model for local and international travel markets.

6.9.1 Structural Model for the Domestic Travel Market

The model was examined with the aim of testing the structural relationships among different research constructs for the local travel market. The data comprised of 430 Tanzanians. The structural model was done for the first time and the output indicates the presence of a negative variance of -.5.722 in error term e51. Based on this information, the negative variance was treated using Hair *et al.* (2010) technique (see section 5.9.2.2). After treating the Heywood case, the model was re-specified.

The results of the initial estimation did provide satisfactory outputs due to the fact that most of the fit indexes were within the acceptable level except for few indices such as AGFI was

below the acceptable level of .90. The overall result indicates that the chi-square score for the model was 380.920, $df = 304$, $p = .002$, $\chi^2/df = 1.25$, TLI=.979, CFI=.982, NFI=.916, PNFI=.793, PCFI=.850, RMSEA=.003. A brief summary of the results is presented in Table 6.25

Table 6.25 Models Fit Indices for the Initial Structural Model for Local Travel Market

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	380.920	
	df	304	
	p	.002	
	χ^2/df	1.253**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.979**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.982**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.916**	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.793**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.850**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.033**	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

6.9.2 Full Structural Model for the Domestic Travel Market

After testing the model without mediating variables, the next step was to expand the model by incorporating destination image items to see whether the variable has an indirect effect or not. The results of the initial model indicate that the value of Chi-square was significant (380.920, $df = 304$, $p < .002$). This statistic test failed to support that the differences between the actual and predicted models were insignificant. However, it is reported that the Chi-square value should not be employed alone as an absolute index but rather it should be used as a guide due to its limitations to sample size and model complexity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1982).

The overall model shows that after adding the mediating variable most of the goodness of fit indices changed a bit, for instance, Chi-square value changed to 533.004 from 380.920, other

fit indexes such as NFI falls a little short of being a good fit. However, the results for other fit indices were as follows; CFI=.971, TLI=.967, PNFI=.776, PCFI=.844, RMSEA=.037. In a nutshell, the overall results of the final model show that the data satisfactory fits for the proposed model. A brief summary of the results is presented in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26 Final SEM Model for the Domestic Travel Market

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	533.004	
	df	404	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	1.319**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.967**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.971**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.893*	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.776**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.844**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.037**	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

The examination of the structural model involves the significance tests for the estimated coefficients (paths), which offer the basis for either accepting or rejecting the proposed relationships between the latent variables as presented in Table 6.24. The final estimates results for the domestic travel market showed that four paths out of eighteen were statistically significant:

It was predicted that there is a positive relationship between intellectual travel motivation and the preference for sightseeing activities. A statistical support for this path was found, intellectual travel motivation is positively influenced by the preference for sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p \leq 0.001$ and $\lambda = .39$), therefore this hypothesis was supported.

Furthermore, it was predicted that there is a positive relationship between destination image and preference for sightseeing activities. The results found that destination image positively influenced the preference for sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p \leq 0.05$ and $\lambda = .17$). Therefore, this hypothesis was also supported.

Additionally, it was predicted that there is a positive relationship between mastery competency travel motivation and the preference for outdoors activities. The result found a statistical support for this path that is mastery competency travel motivation is positively influenced the preference for outdoor activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p \leq 0.05$ and $\lambda = .19$). Therefore, this hypothesis was also supported.

This study further predicted that there is a negative relationship between neurotic personality and destination image. The result indicated that destination image was found to be negatively influenced by neurotic personality trait ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p \leq 0.001$ and $\lambda = -.27$). Therefore, this hypothesis was supported.

Furthermore, the remaining hypotheses were not supported because of the fact that the structural path had high p values (which were either $p \geq .005$ or $p \geq 0.001$). For instance, the path between stimulus avoidance travel motivation and sightseeing activities was not significant. This means that sightseeing activities was not significantly influenced by stimulus avoidance ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .145$ and $\lambda = .10$) or by social travel motivation ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .695$ and $\lambda = .03$). Based on these results, hypotheses 4a and 4c were not supported.

Moreover, the result found that shopping activities was positively influenced by closed to new experience personality traits ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .833$ and $\lambda = .02$) or by destination image ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .833$ and $\lambda = .02$).

$\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .062$ and $\lambda = .15$). Therefore hypotheses 5c and hypothesis 6c were not supported.

Additionally, this study predicted that there is a positive relationship between entertainment activities and destination image. The results found that entertainment activities was not significantly influenced by the destination image ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .619$ and $\lambda = .04$). The results did not find a statistical support between these paths; therefore hypothesis 6d was not supported.

It was also predicted that there is a positive relationship between mastery competence and destination image. The results found that destination image was positively influenced travel motivations such mastery competency ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .174$ and $\lambda = .18$) and stimulus avoidance travel motivation ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .135$ and $\lambda = .12$). Thus, hypothesis 2b and 2c were not supported.

In this study, it was predicted that there is a positive relationship between closed to new experience personality and destination image. The result found that destination image was influenced positively by closed to new experience personality ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .291$ and $\lambda = .09$). The results furthermore found that entertainment activities was negatively influenced by social travel motivation ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .891$ and $\lambda = -.01$). Therefore, hypotheses 3b and 4b were not supported.

It was hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between neurotic personality and sightseeing activities. However, the study found that sightseeing activities was negatively influenced by neurotic personality ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .334$ and $\lambda = -.07$). Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

In addition to that, this study hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between intellectual travel motivation and destination image. The results found that destination image was negatively influenced by travel motivation such as intellectual travel motivation ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p \leq 0.001$ and $\lambda = -.28$) and social travel motivation ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .633$ and $\lambda = -.04$). Therefore, hypotheses 2a and 2d were not supported.

Finally, a path between outdoor activities and destination image was tested. It was found that outdoor activities were negatively influenced by the destination image ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 533.004$; $p = .110$ and $\lambda = -.14$). Therefore, hypothesis 6b was not supported. Hence, it can be concluded that hypotheses H4d, H4e, and H6a were accepted, which confirmed the proposed causal relationships between mastery competency and outdoor activities, sightseeing activities and intellectual travel motivation as well as between sightseeing and affective destination image. The remaining hypotheses were not supported. The overall findings are presented in Table 6.27 and the final model is presented in Figure 6.5.

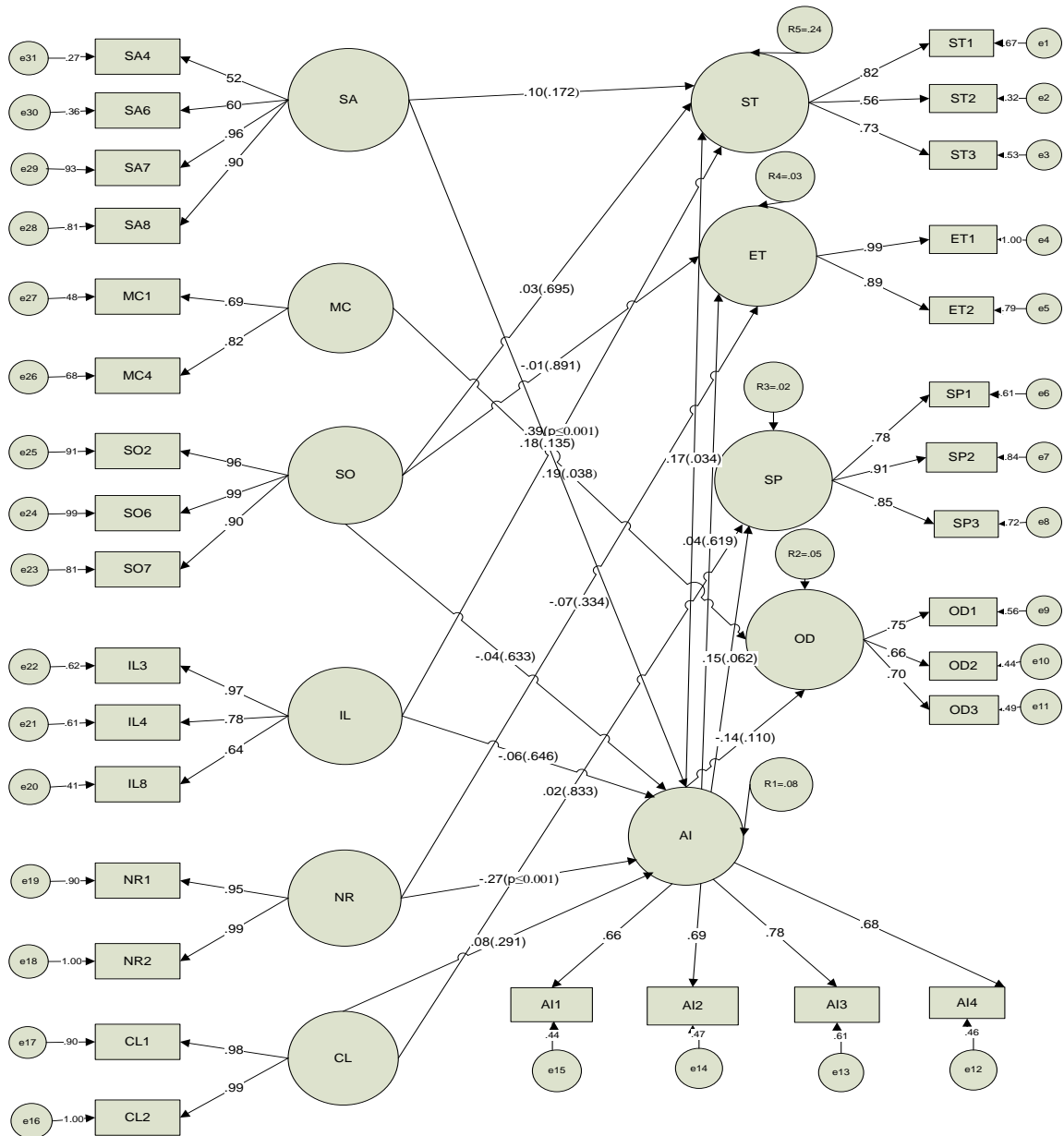
Table 6.27 Findings for Hypothesised Relationships for local Travel Market

Hypothesised paths			Hypothesis	Standardised Weights	P	Supported
SO	→	AI	H2a	-.04	.633	No
SA	→	AI	H2b	.12	.135	No
MC	→	AI	H2c	.18	.174	No
IL	→	AI	H2d	-.06	.646	No
NR	→	AI	H3a	-.27	***	Yes
CL	→	AI	H3b	.08	.291	No
SO	→	ST	H4a	.03	.695	No
SO	→	ET	H4b	-.01	.891	No
SA	→	ST	H4c	.10	.172	No
MC	→	OD	H4d	.19	.038*	Yes
IL	→	ST	H4e	.39	***	Yes
NR	→	SP	H5a	.00	.998	No
NR	→	ST	H5b	-.07	.334	No
CL	→	SP	H5c	.02	.833	No
AI	→	ST	H6a	.17	.034*	Yes

Hypothesised paths			Hypothesis	Standardised Weights	P	Supported
AI	→	OD	H6b	-.14	.110	No
AI	→	SP	H6c	.15	.062	No
AI	→	ET	H6d	.04	.619	No

Note: * (Significant at $p \leq 0.05$); *** Significant at $p \leq 0.001$)

Figure 6.5 Final Structural Models for Domestic Travel Market



Note: SA= Stimulus Avoidance; MC= Mastery Competency travel motivation; SO=Social travel motives; IL= Intellectual travel motivation, NR= Neurotic personality, CL= Closed to new experience; ST=Sightseeing activities; ET= Entertainment activities; SP=Shopping; OD=Outdoor activities and AI= Destination image.

Even though, the goodness of fit indexes shows satisfactory results for the local travel market, further assessment of the structural model was done by examining the squared multiple correlation coefficients for structural equations, which indicates the amount of variance in each endogenous latent variable explained for by the exogenous latent variables. The squared multiple correlations for sightseeing activities was $R^2 = .244$, indicating that 24% of the variance in sightseeing activities was explained by stimulus avoidance travel motivation (SA), social travel motivation (SO), intellectual travel motivation (IL), neurotic personality (NR) and affective destination image (AI). About 84% of the variance in affective destination image (AI) was accounted by neurotic personality (NR), closed to new experience personality (CL), Intellectual travel motivation (IL), Social travel motivation (SO), Mastery Competency (MC) and Stimulus Avoidance (MC). Mastery competency travel motivation and destination image explained 2.3% of the variance in outdoor activities, while personality traits such as closed to new experience, neurotic and destination image explained 1% of the variance in shopping activities.

6.9.3 Testing for the Mediation Effect in the Domestic Structural Model

After performing the final model, the last thing to do was to test for the mediation effect. The Mediation effect was done followed steps developed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Hair *et al.* (2010). First, the initial structural model was performed to determine the effect of independent variables (i.e., travel motivation and personality) on dependent variables (i.e., shopping, outdoor, entertainment and sightseeing activities). Table 6.28 presents the estimates obtained from this model indicate the direct effects. In order to test for the mediation effect, the direct path between the independent variable and dependent variable needs to be significant. Based on the finding of this study, only one path between ST and IL was significant, the remaining paths were not significant. This shows that most of the direct paths were not significant; hence indicates a sign of no mediation. Based on Hair *et al.* (2010)

and Baron and Kenny' approach one needs to find a significant path between independent variable and dependent variable before testing for the indirect effect. Therefore, based on this result, the researcher did not found enough reason to continue testing for the mediation effect.

Table 6.28 Direct Effect Estimates for the Domestic Travel Market

Hypothesised Paths	Estimate	S.E.	P
SO → ST	.02	.084	.781
SO → ET	-.01	.104	.895
SA → ST	.12	.087	.106
MC → OD	.17	.149	.052
IL → ST	.39	.147	***
NR → ST	-.11	.044	.131
NR → SP	-.04	.063	.623
CL → SP	.03	.053	.730

Note: *** (p is significant at $p \leq 0.001$)

Based on the results in Table 6.28, the overall finding indicates that there is direct effect between some of the travel motivation factors and travel activities as represented in paths between MC and OD and between IL and ST. However, none of the personality factors have a direct effect on travel activities. Therefore, there was no need to continue testing for the mediation effect since the results in Table 6.27 proves that there was no mediation effect.

6.9.4 Competing Models for Domestic Travel Market

The final approach to assessing the structural models involves comparison of the proposed theoretical model (M_t) see Figure 6.5 with a series of competing models, which stands as alternatives to the researchers' structural model. The aim of assessing these models was to determine the best fitting model from a set of models. In this research, two alternative models were proposed i.e., M_c and M_u). These two models were developed out of the proposed theoretical model (M_t). M_c was assessed by constrained a path from NR to IL (constrained to zero) and in M_u model; a new path was added between social travel motivation (SO) and Shopping activities (SP). Afterwards, the sequential Chi-square difference tests (SCDTs)

were performed to assess whether there were significant differences in the estimated construct covariances. The χ^2 difference test examined the null hypotheses of no significance difference between two nested structural models (i.e., $M_t - M_u = 0$ and $M_c - M_u = 0$). The difference in Chi-square values between M_c and M_t ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.889$; $\Delta df = 1$) indicating that M_c was performing better compared to the theoretical model (M_t), and Chi-square difference between M_c and M_u ($\Delta \chi^2 = 4.902$; $\Delta df = 2$) showing that M_c was not performing better than M_u .

The results of the chi-square tests support the competing model (M_u) to the proposed model (M_t) and the alternative model (M_c). Further analysis was done to assess the effect of adding a new structural path from SO to SP. The intention of assessing this path was mainly to test the statistical significance of the parameter coefficient for the new path. The casual relationship between SO to SP was significant ($p = .046$; $\lambda = .14$). Based on the findings there should be a direct path between social travel motivations (SO) and shopping (SP) as the competing model (M_u) proposed.

This relationship could be theoretically justified because individuals who travel for social reasons have a tendency of seeking for a sense of self-esteem, friendships or developing a sense of belonging to the place they visited. Individuals of this nature are looking for social interactions, and shopping can be seen as a platform for people to interact with one another. Shopping is often recognized as a crucial travel motivation (Butler, 1991; Timothy, 2005). As a travel activity, shopping is associated with one's emotions, because some people engaged in shopping because of the desire to have fun (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000), or to enjoy and relax (Bussey, 1987). These attributes are important to tourists because the stress of daily life can be somehow celebrated by going shopping (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002).

Another method for assessing the performance of the theoretical structural model compared to the competing models was done using the goodness of fit indices. The aim was to determine which of the three models had the best model fit. The goodness of fit indices such as χ^2/df , RMSEA, NFI and PCFI for three models was somehow similar as indicated in Table 6.29, showing that the three competing models attained almost the same level of model fit. Therefore, it was concluded that the competing model (M_u) could be retained as a feasible alternative for the acceptance. Based on the overall findings, the final model M_u seem to be a better model compared with the other models (i.e., M_t and M_c), even though some of its goodness of fit indices were at the marginal level of acceptance.

Table 6.29 Fit Indices for competing Models for the Local Travel Market

GOF	Theoretical Model (M_t)	M_u	M_c
χ^2	533.004	529.001	533.903
df	404	403	405
χ^2/df	1.319	1.313	1.318
NFI	.893*	.894*	.893*
TLI	.967**	.968**	.967**
CFI	.971**	.972**	.971**
PNFI	.776**	.774**	.777**
PCFI	.844**	.842**	.846**
RMSEA	.037**	.037**	.037**
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

6.9.5 Initial structural model for the international travel market

The model was assessed to examine the structural relationship among travel motivation, personality and travel activity preferences for the international travel market. The data consisted of 201 tourists from different countries. The structural model was performed and the

results indicated that chi-square test was significant ($\chi^2 = 538.943$, $df = 304$, $p = .000$). Some of the goodness of fit indexes such as NFI was below the acceptable level of .90 as highlighted by Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino, (2006). However, other indices such as χ^2/df was 1.773, TLI=.925, CFI=.935, PCFI=.810, RMSEA=.062 were within the acceptable range. Further analysis indicated that there was no problem as far as the modification index and standardised residual are concerned. The summary of the goodness of fit results is presented in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30 Models Fit Indexes for the Initial Structural Model for International Travel Market

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	538.943	
	df	304	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	1.773**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.925**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.935**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.865*	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.749**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.810**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.062**	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

After testing the initial model without the mediating variable, the following step involved the model expansion by including the mediating variable in the model. The result of the structural model for this expanded model indicates that there was a change as far as the goodness of fit indices was concerned. The values of some of the indices were somehow improved for instance χ^2/df changed to 1.612 from 1.773, other indices which were improved including TLI, PCFI and RMSEA as indicated in Table 6.31. Overall, the results indicate a satisfactory model as most of the goodness of fit indices was above the acceptable level

except for NFI. Further analysis did not indicate the presence of a large modification index value or a high value of standardised residual.

Table 6.31 Final Structural Model for International Travel Market

Fit index		Scores	Recommended cut-off value
Absolute	χ^2	651.288	
	df	404	
	p	.000	
	χ^2/df	1.612**	≤ 3
Comparative	TLI	.928**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	CFI	.937**	$\geq .95$ or $\geq .90$
	NFI	.852*	$\geq .90$
Parsimonious	PNFI	.740**	$\geq .50$
	PCFI	.814**	$\geq .50$
Others	RMSEA	.055**	$< 0.06 - .008$
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

The overall structural model showed that four out of eighteen paths were statistically significant. The study found that social travel motivation positively and significantly influenced entertainment activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p = .033$ and $\lambda = .17$). Therefore, this hypothesis was supported.

Furthermore, as it was predicted stimulus avoidance travel motivation positively influenced the preference for sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p \leq 0.001$ and $\lambda = .32$). Therefore, this hypothesis was also supported.

Moreover, it was predicted that there is a positive relationship between mastery competency travel motivation and outdoors activities. This found that mastery competency travel motivation significantly influenced the preference for outdoor activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p \leq 0.001$ and $\lambda = .28$). Therefore, this hypothesis was supported.

Additionally, this study hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between destination image and sightseeing activities. It was found that destination image positively influenced the preference for shopping activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p \leq 0.05$ and $\lambda = .17$). The results further found a statistically significant result between this path. Therefore, this hypothesis was also supported.

Based on these results, it can be concluded that hypotheses H4b, H4c, H4d, and H6c could not be rejected, which proposed the casual relationships among social travel motivation and entertainment activities, stimulus avoidance travel motivation and sightseeing activities, mastery competency travel motivation and outdoors activities and finally between destination image and preference for shopping activities.

Additionally, other structural paths were not supported because of the presence of high p values. For instance, destination image was not significantly influenced by any of the travel motivation factors. This means that the path between SO to AI ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .655$ and $\lambda = .05$); SA to AI ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .169$ and $\lambda = .12$); MC to AI ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .110$ and $\lambda = .17$); IL to AI ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .400$ and $\lambda = .08$). Therefore, based on these results hypotheses H2a, H2b, H2c, and H2d, were not supported.

Furthermore, as it was predicted, neurotic personality influenced destination image negatively, NR to AI ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .172$ and $\lambda = .11$) and closed to new experience personality influenced destination image positively, ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288; p = .737$ and $\lambda = .03$). Although the regression coefficients between these paths were like it was predicted, therefore, hypotheses H3a and H3b were not supported.

The result of this study also revealed that some of the travel motivation factors did not have a significant effect on some of the travel activities. For example, social travel motivation was

not significantly influenced by sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.797$ and $\lambda= .02$); similar results also found between intellectual travel motivation and sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.274$ and $\lambda= .09$). Therefore, based on these results, hypotheses H4a and H4e were not supported.

The results further found that all personality factors did not have a significant influence on travel activities. For example, it was found that neurotic personality was not significantly influenced shopping activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.274$ and $\lambda= .09$). A similar finding was reported when the effect of the same personality trait was examined on sightseeing activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.623$ and $\lambda= .04$). Also closed to new experience personality did not significantly influence shopping activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.741$ and $\lambda= .03$). Therefore, based on these results hypotheses H5a, H5b and H5c were not supported.

Moreover, this study also examined the influence of destination image on travel activities. It was found that destination image did not have significant effect on activities such as sightseeing ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.111$ and $\lambda= .13$); outdoor activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.680$ and $\lambda= -.03$); and on entertainment activities ($\chi^2_{(404)} = 651.288$; $p=.629$ and $\lambda= .04$). Therefore, based on these results H6a, H6b and H6d were not supported. Summary of the standardised estimates for the final SEM Model for the international market is presented in Table 6.32 and Figure 6.6.

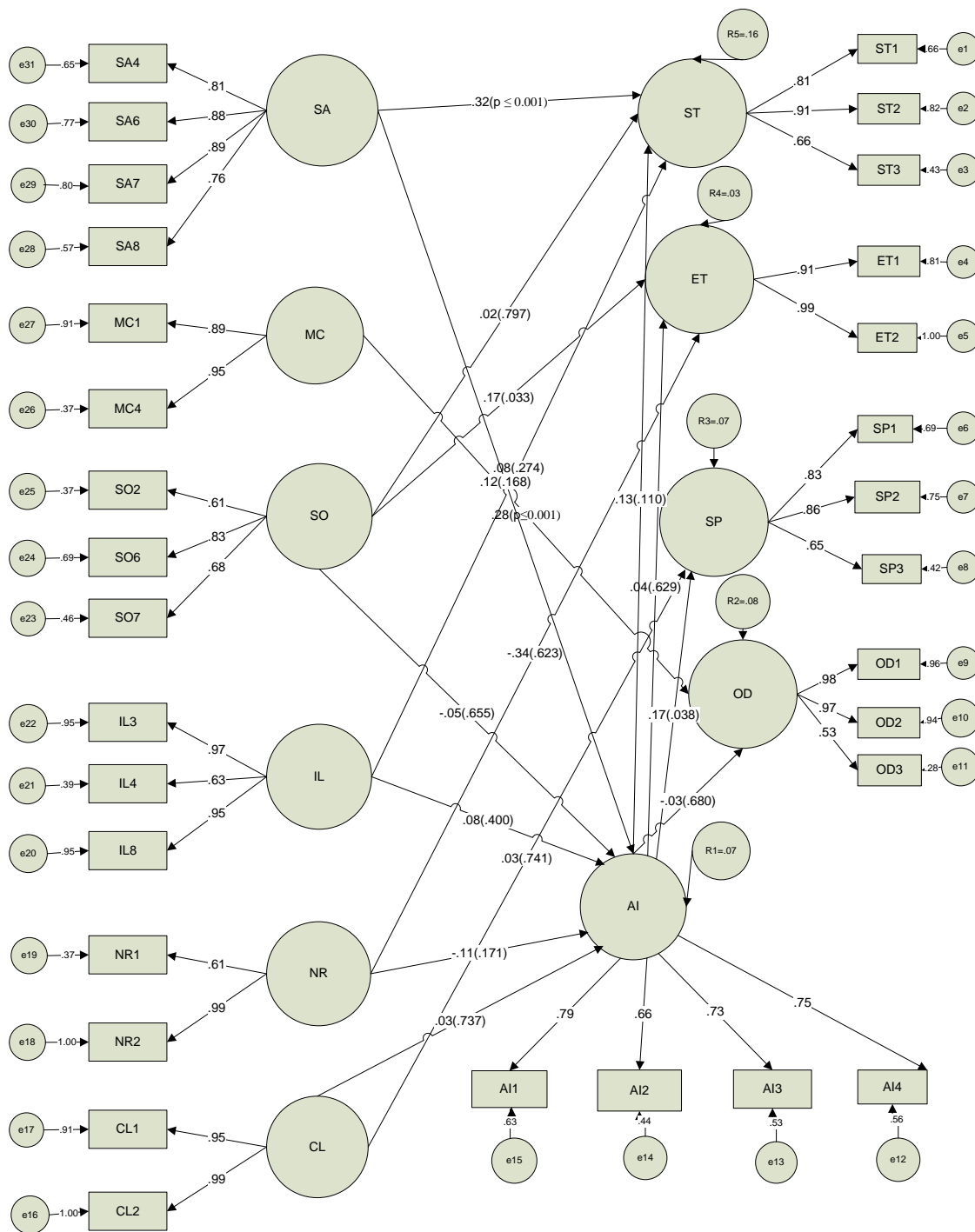
Table 6.32 Hypothesised Relationships for international Travel Market

Hypothesised paths			Hypothesis	Standardised Weights (λ)	P	Supported
SO	→	AI	H2a	-.05	.655	No
SA	→	AI	H2b	.12	.169	No
MC	→	AI	H2c	.17	.110	No
IL	→	AI	H2d	.08	.400	No
NR	→	AI	H3a	-.11	.172	No
CL	→	AI	H3b	.03	.737	No

Hypothesised paths			Hypothesis	Standardised Weights (λ)	<i>P</i>	Supported
SO	→	ST	H4a	.02	.797	No
SO	→	ET	H4b	.17	.033*	Yes
SA	→	ST	H4c	.32	***	Yes
MC	→	OD	H4d	.28	***	Yes
IL	→	ST	H4e	.09	.274	No
NR	→	SP	H5a	.20	.008	No
NR	→	ST	H5b	-.04	.623	No
CL	→	SP	H5c	.03	.741	No
AI	→	ST	H6a	.13	.111	No
AI	→	OD	H6b	-.03	.680	No
AI	→	SP	H6c	.17	.039*	Yes
AI	→	ET	H6d	.04	.629	No

Note: * (*p* is significant at $p \leq 0.05$); *** (*p* is significant at $p \leq 0.001$)

Figure 6.6 Final Structural Model for International travel market



Note: SA= Stimulus Avoidance; MC= Mastery Competency travel motivation; SO=Social travel motives; IL= Intellectual travel motivation, NR= Neurotic personality, CL= Closed to new experience; ST=Sightseeing activities; ET= Entertainment activities; SP= Shopping; OD=Outdoor activities and AI= Destination image.

Apart from the goodness of fit indices, the structural model was also examined using the squared multiple correlation coefficients (SMCC). The SMCC for sightseeing activities was $R^2=.154$ indicating that 15% of the variance in the latent variable sightseeing activities (SA) was explained by stimulus avoidance travel motivation (SA), social travel motivation (SO), intellectual travel motivation (IL), destination image (AI) and neurotic personality (NR). About 6.6% of the uncertainties in shopping activities were accounted by destination image (AI) and personality traits such as neurotic personality (NR) and closeness to new experience personality (CL). Social travel motivation (SO) and destination image (AI) explained 3.2% of the variance in entertainment activities (ET) and Mastery competency travel motivation (MC) and destination image (AI) accounted for 7.6% of the variance in outdoor activities (OD).

6.9.6 Testing for Mediation Effect in the International Travel Market

As it was done in the local travel market, the next step followed was testing for the mediation effect. A similar procedure that was used in the local travel market was adopted to assess the mediation effect in the international travel market. First, the initial structural model (without the mediator) was performed to determine the direct effect of exogenous variables (i.e., travel motivation and personality) on outcome variables (i.e., shopping, outdoor, entertainment and sightseeing activities). Table 6.33 presents the direct estimates obtained from this model. In order to test for the mediation effect, the direct path between exogenous variable and outcome variable needs to be significant. However, only four paths (i.e., between ST and SA, OD and MC, SP and NR and between SO and ET) were significant, while the remaining paths were not significant. Therefore, since most of the initial direct effect did not produce significant results hence, it was not feasible to continue testing for the mediation effect.

Table 6.33 Direct Effect Estimates for the International Travel Market

		Estimate	S.E.	P
SO	→ ST	.03	.103	.741
SO	→ ET	.18	.092	.027*
SA	→ ST	.34	.083	***
MC	→ OD	.27	.119	***
IL	→ ST	.10	.085	.196
NR	→ ST	-.05	.061	.499
NR	→ SP	.19	.073	.015*
CL	→ SP	.04	.086	.616

*(p is significant at $p \leq 0.05$); *** (p is significant at $p \leq 0.001$)

Based on the results in Table 6.33, it shows that there is direct effect between some of the travel motivations and travel activities as it is represented by paths between SO and ET, SA and ST and from MC and OD, and in some of the personality factors as represented in the path between NR and SP. Therefore, based on these results there was no need to continue testing for the mediation effect since the results in Table 6.32 proves that there was no mediation effect but rather there is a direct effect between variables.

6.9.7 Assessment of Competing Models for International Travel Market

Assessment of the competing models was also performed in this travel market same way as it was done in the local travel market. The intention was to compare researchers' structural model (see Figure 6.6) with the competing models i.e., M_c and M_u so that the best fitting model can be identified. The M_c model was developed by constrained covariance between IL and NR to zero, and M_u model was created by adding a new path from SO to SP. Afterwards, the sequential chi-square difference tests were done to assess whether there were significant differences in the estimated construct covariances in the three structural models. The χ^2 difference test assessed the null hypotheses of no significant difference between two nested structural models ($M_u - M_t = 0$ and $M_c - M_u = 0$). The χ^2 difference test between researchers' theoretical model and M_c ($\Delta \chi^2 = 0.412$; $\Delta df = 1$). The finding indicates that M_c model

performed better than the theoretical model, and the χ^2 difference between M_c and M_u ($\Delta \chi^2 = 016.160$; $\Delta df = 1$).

This result indicates that M_u was performing better than M_c . The overall results of the χ^2 difference tests supported the competing model M_u to the researchers' theoretical model (M_t) and the alternative model (M_c). Furthermore, more analysis was performed to examine the significant effect of adding the new path for the M_u model. The causal relationship between SO and SP was significant ($p \leq 0.01$; $\lambda = .36$). The result indicates that there should be a direct path between SO and SP as the competing model M_u suggested.

In addition to that GOF indices were also assessed to determine which of the models performed better. The overall fit indices showed that M_u model had better fit indices compared to the other structural models (see Table 6.34). Based on GOF indexes, it was concluded that M_u should be selected as a feasible alternative for acceptance, despite the fact that NFI indices was somehow below the acceptance level.

Table 6.34 Fit indexes for Competing Models for International Travel Market

GOF	Theoretical Model (M_t)	M_u	M_c
χ^2	651.288	635.542	651.702
df	404	404	405
χ^2/df	1.612**	1.573**	1.609**
NFI	.852**	.855*	.852*
TLI	.928**	.932**	.928**
CFI	.937**	.941**	.937**
PNFI	.740**	.743**	.742**
PCFI	.814**	.818**	.816**
RMSEA	.055**	.054**	.055**

GOF	Theoretical Model (M_1)	M_u	M_c
Note: *(Marginal), ** (Acceptable), *** (Unacceptable), χ^2 = Chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, χ^2/df = Ratio of degrees of freedom and chi-square; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI=Comparative Fit Index; NFI=Normed Fit Index; PNFI= Parsimonious Normed Fit Index; PCFI = Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation			

6.10 Analysis of differences in preference for travel activities between domestic and international tourists

In this study, the analysis to determine the differences in preference for travel activities was done using an independent t test. The test was conducted to determine if there was any significant differences existed between Domestic ($N=230$) and international tourists ($N=201$) in relation to preferences for travel activities. In order to test the hypothesis that there are significant differences in preference for travel activities among tourist, an independent sample t-test was performed following several steps. First, the tourist data were tested for normality. As can be seen in Table 6.35, the group statistics distribution were sufficiently normal for the purpose of performing a sample t-test (i.e., Skewness and Kurtosis $\leq \pm 1.00$ values were reasonably within the acceptable range as pointed out by (Meyers, Gamst, and Guirano, 2006).

Table 6.35 Group Statistic Results

Descriptive Statistics						
	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Tourist type	431	1.47	.024	.499	.135	-1.991
Valid N (listwise)	431					

After testing for data normality, the next step was to assess whether the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met. The result (Table 6.36) indicates that the assumption was met and satisfied in seven travel activities.

Table 6.36 Independent t-test Results

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Visiting beaches	Equal variances assumed	16.334	.000	2.623	429	.009	.402	.153
	Equal variances not assumed			2.577	372.488	.010	.402	.156
Visiting islands	Equal variances assumed	1.561	.212	.194	429	.846	.033	.171
	Equal variances not assumed			.193	412.708	.847	.033	.172
Visiting city attractions	Equal variances assumed	26.002	.000	6.887	429	.000	1.026	.149
	Equal variances not assumed			6.735	354.537	.000	1.026	.152
Going to casino	Equal variances assumed	4.412	.036	1.681	429	.093	.273	.163
	Equal variances not assumed			1.690	427.257	.092	.273	.162
Going to nightclub	Equal variances assumed	24.921	.000	2.357	429	.019	.409	.173
	Equal variances not assumed			2.395	424.696	.017	.409	.171
Buying traditional clothes	Equal variances assumed	.557	.456	6.215	429	.000	1.196	.192
	Equal variances not assumed			6.205	418.383	.000	1.196	.193
Buying traditional jewelries	Equal variances assumed	.318	.573	4.577	429	.000	.936	.204
	Equal variances			4.572	419.511	.000	.936	.205

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	not assumed							
Buying of carving products	Equal variances assumed	.017	.897	2.671	429	.008	.531	.199
	Equal variances not assumed			2.674	423.202	.008	.531	.199
Mountain climbing	Equal variances assumed	.820	.366	.305	429	.760	.066	.217
	Equal variances not assumed			.304	417.868	.761	.066	.218
Hunting	Equal variances assumed	3.156	.076	-1.904	429	.058	-.395	.208
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.899	416.843	.058	-.395	.208
Camping	Equal variances assumed	.881	.348	2.814	429	.005	.597	.212
	Equal variances not assumed			2.825	426.327	.005	.597	.211

The next procedure involved was comparing the mean difference between these two travel markets based on their preferences for various travel activities. The result (see Table 6.37) indicates domestic tourists significantly differ from international tourists in preference for visiting beaches $t(372.5) = 2.58, p = .010$; visiting city attractions $t(354.5) = 6.74, p = .000$; going to a nightclub $t(424.7) = 2.39, p = .017$; buying traditional clothes $t(429) = 6.22, p = .000$; buying of traditional jewellery $t(429) = 4.58, p = .000$; and camping $t(429) = 2.81, p = .005$. Further analysis indicates that local travel market had high mean values for almost all the activities compared to international tourists. On the other hand, no significant difference was found for activities such as visiting islands $t(429) = .19, p = .846$; going to casino $t(427.3)$

=1.7, $p=.092$; buying carving products $t(429)=2.7$, $p=.008$; mountain climbing $t(429)=.30$, $p=.760$ and hunting $t(429)=-1.9$, $p=.058$.

In order to determine the magnitude of the mean differences, more analysis was performed using Cohen's d test to assess the magnitude of the effect of occupation on travel activities. Based on Cohen's d test, if d value ranges from 00-0.2 it means the effect is small, if it ranges from 0.3- 0.5 it means there is moderate effect and if d is greater than 0.6 then it implies that the effect is large (Cohen, 1988).

Therefore, based on these criteria, the magnitude of differences in preference for travel activities among two groups was largely shown in activities such as visiting city attractions and buying of traditional clothes. The medium effect was indicated in purchasing of traditional jewellers, and the small effect was seen in activities such as visiting beaches, visiting nightclubs, and camping. Therefore, hypothesis H8_a, H8_c, H8_e, H8_f, H8_g, and H8_k were supported and the rest were not supported.

Table 6.37 Results of Travel Activity Differences among Tourists

Travel activities	Mean (D)	Mean (I)	t -value	p -value	Cohen's d	Supported
H8a: Visiting beaches	5.59	5.19	2.577	.010***	0.25	Yes
H8b: Visiting islands	5.25	5.22	0.194	.846	NA	No
H8c: Visiting city attractions	5.75	4.73	6.887	.000***	0.65	Yes
H8d: Going to casino	2.31	2.04	1.690	.093	NA	No
H8e: Going to a nightclub	2.51	2.10	2.395	.017***	0.23	Yes
H8f: Buying of traditional clothes	4.61	3.41	6.215	.000***	0.60	Yes
H8g: Buying of traditional jewelleries	4.27	3.34	4.577	.000***	0.44	Yes
H8h: Buying of carving products	4.25	3.72	2.671	.008	NA	No
H8i: Mountain climbing	3.75	3.68	0.305	.760	NA	No
H8j: Hunting	2.91	3.31	-1.904	.058	NA	No
H8k: Camping	4.17	3.57	2.814	.005	0.27	Yes

Note: *** Significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$; Mean (L) = Domestic tourist; Mean (I) = International tourists; NA= Not applicable.)

6.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter first presented pilot study findings. It further discussed in detail the findings developed from techniques such as descriptive statistics, MANOVA, independent t-test and SEM. This chapter further presented reliability and validity findings. The next chapter discusses implications of the study findings both empirically and theoretically.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

7.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter discusses the overall study findings as was reported by the above statistical techniques in Chapter Six. The purpose of this study was to increase knowledge on tourist travel activities by identifying the kinds of travel activities preferred by tourists and assessing the role of demographics, travel motivation and personality on travel activities. Based on the literature (as indicated in Chapter Two and Three), a conceptual model of travel activities was developed, and the hypothesised relationships were empirically tested. In this chapter, the overall findings from the hypotheses testing are discussed.

7.2 Preference for Travel Activities

One of the objectives of this study was to identify the types of travel activities preferred by tourists when they visited tourist attractions in Tanzania. The results from descriptive statistics (see Appendix 5), indicate that the most preferred top three travel activities in both travel markets include visiting city attractions, islands, and beaches. To start with visiting beaches and islands were the first and second most preferred travel activities by both the travel markets. Apart from domestic tourists, visitors from South Africa, UK, USA, Kenya, India, Australia, New Zealand, Philippine, Germany, Switzerland, China, and Sweden reported that they preferred these activities. This result does not support the finding presented by the Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey's (2010). In that survey, it was found that beach tourism was the second attractive tourism activity to tourists from Europe, followed by those from North America (USA and Canada), and finally visitors from Africa (South Africa, Kenya, and Zambia). This finding also relates to the arguments that 15% of all European long-haul travellers are predicted to visit Sub-Saharan Africa for beach holidays only (URT, 2003).

Thus, visiting islands and beaches were reported to be the source travel markets to Zanzibar and Pemba as the islands are surrounded by pristine coral reefs, coconut palm, fringed sandy and clean beaches. With these attractions, tourists can participate in water sports activities such as scuba diving, snorkeling, sail boating, deep sea and fishing.

This study also found that city attractions were the third most preferred activity by both tourists. The results further have indicated that a total of 66.7% domestic tourists and 4.2% from South Africa and 1.7% from Australia prefer visiting city attractions. The same preference was found in 2.5% of the tourists from India, Germany, and UK. These results somehow concur with the findings of Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2010), which reported that international tourists from the above countries preferred cultural tourism (a part of city attractions).

These findings are not surprising because Tanzania has a lot to offer when it comes to city attractions. Big cities such as Dar es Salaam offer lots of city attractions, some of which include cultural centers at the national museum, the museum village, clock tower, Uhuru torch, yacht club, askari monument, international conference centre, harbor, Slip way, Oyster Bay beach, the house of art and the Karimjee botanical gardens. Zanzibar, on the other hand, has tourist attractions some of which are the Aga Khan mosque, Anglican Cathedral, slave market, “Beit el-Ajaib” “Hamamni Persian Baths”, memorial museum and the natural history museum. Pemba also provides few attractions such as an ancient mosque, historical ruins and “Chake Chake” (oldest town).

Purchasing of traditional clothes was the fourth most preferred travel activity by tourists. Mostly, this activity was preferred by tourists from Australia, Germany, India, Kenya, New Zealand, South Africa and the UK. This preference could be associated with the fact that in

almost every part of big cities in Tanzania, there are shopping centers for traditional wears like Maasai dresses, Vikoyo, khanga, and vitenge.

The findings of this study have shown that tourists from Africa, among other continents, have an interest in this activity. For example, those from Kenya, among others, prefer this activity may be they share a similar culture with Tanzania especially when it comes to traditional clothes and jewelry. Furthermore, the quality of the traditional wear that is available in the country could be the reason why they prefer purchasing these products from Tanzania. The past studies have shown that Kenyans, for instance, prefer purchasing second-hand traditional clothes that are of high quality and available at a cheaper price (Nyang'or 1994, cited in Maiyo & Imo, 2012). Therefore, the reasonable price could be one of the reasons why Kenyans showed interest in purchasing traditional clothes.

Apart from the above four activities, purchasing of carving products/artifacts was another most preferred activity. Tourists from Australia, China, India, Kenya, South Africa, Sweden, UK and the USA declared interests in this activity. For example, according to Kamuzora (2003), Americans prefer purchasing Maasai warrior carvings, Japanese prefer purchasing ujamaa carvings and Chinese would go for rhino carvings when in Tanzania (Kamuzora, 2003). It is not surprising to see a good number of international tourists having a passion for carving products because Tanzania offers a wealth of traditional products ranging from cultural arts/crafts to wooden paintings. Arusha and Zanzibar are among the best places in Tanzania which sell these products. Tourists have been buying them as something special to remind them of their trip to Tanzania. Makonde and ebony carvings, “tinga-tinga” paintings and wood sculptures are among the products that are available at curio and stone town

market. Tourists have been buying them as something special to remind them of their trip to Tanzania. On average, a substantial number of locals were also reported to have an interest in this activity than internationals. This might be due to the fact that these products do portray their country's culture.

Camping safari was another most preferred travel activity by tourists. The tourists from Kenya, South Africa, US and UK and domestic tourists preferred this activity. Most of the camping sites are located near wildlife areas. These results reflect the country's wealth in wildlife, as the country is popular for being a home of the Africa's outstanding game reserves, national parks, and conservation areas. It can be argued that tourists from the aforementioned countries preferred this activity may be because it is adventurous. Another reason could be that these tourists are used to this activity.

Generally, camping safari is one of the most preferred activities by many tourists, because it offers them with the opportunity to be close to wild animals, to hear their voices and observe their behaviour. In Tanzania, the famous camping sites are located near Tarangire national park, Serengeti national park, Ngoro Ngoro crater and Manyara national park. Tourists prefer camping in these areas because the parks are endowed with many animals, birds and natural vegetation. On the other hand, over 50% of domestic tourists surprisingly showed interests in camping. Free gate entry for buses carrying domestic tourists, affordable huts, rest houses and hostels at the parks could be some of the reasons that motivate domestic tourists to participate in this activity.

Apart from the most preferred travel activities, this study also was able to identify the least preferred activities. Entertainment activities (visiting casinos and nightclubs) were among the least preferred activities by both travel markets. Tanzania, like any other country, has quite number of nightclubs and casinos. Most of these entertainment activities are happening in big

cities such as Dar-es-Salaam and Arusha. In other areas like Zanzibar, there are only a few nightclubs and casinos. This small number could be attributed to the fact that 98% of all residents are Muslims (Tanzania International religious freedom report, 2012).

Despite all these attractions, entertainment activities were reported to be among the least preferred activities by the majority of both travel markets. About 52.9% of all domestic tourists and 47% of tourists from Australia, China, France, Germany, India, Kenya, New Zealand, the UK, South Africa and the US commented that they didn't prefer going to nightclubs. A similar trend was reflected when these tourists were asked to rate their level of preference for visiting casinos. Also, the tourists from Japan, Norway, Pakistan and Sweden commented that they didn't prefer visiting casinos.

Tourists from the UK, the USA, France, China and South Africa also commented that they didn't prefer entertainment activities. This could be explained by the fact they have large casinos and nightclubs in their countries. Therefore, there was no point for them to participate in the similar activities when they travel outside their countries. On the other hand, most of the domestic tourists commented that visiting casinos and nightclubs involves wastage of money and time. Although casinos are considered to be important travel attractions as it was pointed out by Wong and Rosenbaum (2012), gambling (major casino activity) is associated with many problems. For instance Reith (2006) pointed out that gamblers are generally individuals who are believed to have no control when it comes to spending. Their spending behaviour affects them socially and physically.

7.3 Role of Demographic Factors in Influencing Travel Activities

Apart from identifying the preferred activities, assessment of differences in travel activities in relation to demographic factors among tourists was another objective for conducting this study. Differences in travel activities were assessed based on demographic factors such as tourist marital status, family size and occupation. Results from multivariate analysis as indicated in Table 6.10 in Chapter Six, show that amongst all the examined demographic factors, only tourist occupation was reported to have significant effect on travel activities.

Furthermore, findings from the uni-variate ANOVA as presented in Appendix 6 indicate that this factor had a significant effect on travel activities such as preference for visiting beaches, islands and purchasing of traditional clothes. It was further indicated in Table 6.12 that both employed and unemployed domestic tourists had higher preference for visiting beaches than the employed and unemployed international tourists. The more love of domestic tourists to touring beaches than islands could be associated with the fact that beach tourism is more affordable than island tourism in Tanzania. This is so because there is no entrance fee in most of the beaches. Thus, a good number of domestic tourists have been reported to visit beach areas especially during the weekends. Relaxation and having good time with family members could be one of the key motives to prefer going to the beaches. Furthermore, big companies such Coca Cola and mobile phone companies have been using beaches as one of the area to promote their products and services. A good number of domestic tourists irrespective of their differences in socio-economic status have been flocking the beach areas to attend the product launching shows, where local artists get to perform. Thus, domestic tourists may not only perceive beach visiting as relaxing activity but also as an entertaining activity, and this explains why the mean difference for the influence of occupation on visiting beaches was higher for domestic tourists than international tourists. The finding of this study is somehow

consistent with Maguire, *et al.*'s (2011) findings that domestic tourists are the main beach users compared to international tourists. However, the preference for visiting beaches may be reduced during holidays as domestic tourists avoid influx of international tourists. This finding is somehow surprising, because Zanzibar and Pemba have been featured in travel agents brochures as a beach tourist destination, with source travel markets from Europe (URT, 2003).

The reason for this disparity could be due to the fact that international tourists look for certain attributes before they make a decision to visit a particular attraction. For instance, when they visit beach areas factors such as desire to experience nature, peace, quietness, un-congested environment, absence of litter and availability of basic requirements (such as toilet and bins) are considered to be important to beach users (Ruyuk, Soares & McLachlan, 1995). In addition to that, factors such as warm weather, relaxing environment, white sand, clean, unspoiled and conducive family environment are regarded as the key factors influencing tourists from choosing beach vacation.

Other researchers argued that the decision to visit a particular beach is dependent on water quality, cost of getting to the beach, activities involved and season during which the choice is made (Hanemann *et al.*, 2004). Apart from these attributes, the desire to enjoy nature is reported to be another factor that is considered when individuals choose beach destination (Tunstall & Penning-Roswell, 1998, cited in Roca, Villares & Ortego, 2009). The tourists generally assign great value to the issue of natural attraction because of their desire for sea waves and sunset view when they are at the beach. Other important factors that tourists consider when choosing beach as a tourist destination include safety and security, accessibility and the nature of activities available at the beach (Hassan & Mondal, 2013). The issue of security and safety could be one of the reasons why few international tourists have

shown interest in visiting beaches. For instance, in Europe ‘safety’ is generally the most important aspect when an individual wants to choose a resort/urban beach destination (Botero *et al.*, 2013).

Recently, several bad incidents have happened in Tanzania. For example, it was reported in 2013 that two British women were attacked with acid in Zanzibar (CNN online news, 2013). This devastating news to some extent might have contributed to the reason as per why the Zanzibar and Pemba islands and beach areas are receiving less number of international tourists. The news further pointed out that Islam is the main religion for most of the citizens in the island because of which tourist are forced to cover them when they visit beach areas.

This situation might have made them uncomfortable as it was pointed out by George (2003) that if tourists feel unsafe or threatened when they are on holiday; there is a great chance of developing a negative image regarding the destination. Once they develop the negative image, there is a probability that they will not visit that destination again. Therefore, it can be clearly indicated from these findings that international tourists are affected by so many factors when they want to travel to a beach destination.

In short, tourist occupation plays a great role in explaining preferences for travel activities. However, in the context of Tanzania, domestic tourists irrespective of their differences in the occupation status perceive beach as an area where one can hang out with families and friends. Though this study revealed that occupation plays a significant role in explaining travel activities, Hassan and Mondal (2013) found that occupation does not have any significant effect on the choice of beach destination, while other demographic factors such as age, gender, and marital status were reported to have a significant relationship with a beach choice.

Furthermore, this study also found that employed domestic tourists had a higher mean value for visiting islands than employed international tourists as it was presented in Table 6.12. The reason for such disparity could be explained by the fact that most of the international tourists traveled to Zanzibar as their second destination after visiting the mainland for safari. Despite the fact that Zanzibar and Pemba have quite a good number of resort hotels, these islands lack the most basic infrastructure such as roads, water supply, electricity and telecommunications (URT, 2003).

In addition to that, the quality of the accommodation in the islands does not match with the room price that tourist pays (Acorn consulting partnership, 2008). Tourism Master Plan for Zanzibar and Pemba highlights the current tourism trend in the islands is based on low-quality accommodation. This situation could have an impact on how international tourists perceive Zanzibar as a coastal destination. In relation to the same issue, Acorn consulting partnership (2008) identified that long haul travellers do consider price and quality of accommodation before they make a travel decision; they put more emphasis on the destination that offers value for money. For instance, travellers from the USA consider accommodation as an important attribute for their vacation experience; Germans, on the other hand, prefer mid-range price accommodation. The issue of pricing and accommodation does not affect domestic tourists' as much as international tourists. This is because when the domestic tourists make a trip to the islands they may stay with their family or at a friend's place. Apart from poor infrastructure, poor waste disposal systems, political instability, and security could be some of the reasons as to why less number of employed international tourists visited the islands. The decrease in a number of international tourists in Zanzibar could also be due to the adverse publicity following the civil disturbances in January 2001,

the bombing of US Embassy in Tanzania and the harassment of British visitors in 2013. All these events may in a way affect the flow of international tourists to the islands.

Seasonality could be another reason as per why the number of employed domestic tourists surpasses the number of employed international tourists that visited Zanzibar. Zanzibar has more pronounced seasonality compared to the mainland. The peak season in Zanzibar is usually in August and in December-January, which is the favored period for Europeans. However, data collection for this study was done between January and May. Therefore, this can be believed to be the reason for such difference between employed local and international tourists.

Besides visiting islands, this study highlighted that both employed and unemployed domestic tourists had a high mean value for purchasing traditional clothes than international tourists. Although there is limited information regarding the effect of occupation on travel activities, Aloomu and Lawan (2013), commented that occupation has a significant influence on purchasing of clothes. Other demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status and education also play a significant role in influencing the purchasing behaviour. A plausible explanation as to why unemployed domestic tourists showed higher preference for this activity could be explained by the fact that shopping is one among the hectic activity. This kind of activity suits better those who are unemployed because they have flexible time to participate in such activity than those who are employed. This finding is consistent with Yu and Litrel's (2005) findings that shoppers are believed to be unemployed, well-educated and high-income earners. On the other hand, employed domestic tourist also had high mean value for this activity. This finding is supported by the previous work of Demir (2003). He found that employed visitors are likely to engage in activities such as shopping and gardening.

On the other travel market, the findings of this study offer an interesting story since international tourists are generally looking for excitement and pleasure when they shop; sometimes they seek to have a chance to interact with local people. Also, tourists have a tendency of buying souvenirs for social psychological reasons and for symbolic meaning that is the things they buy normally carry special and symbolic trip memories they wish to cherish (Littrell, *et al.*, 1994).

The reason why unemployed and employed international tourists showed less interest in buying traditional clothes could be explained by the fact that Tanzania is regarded as an expensive tourist destination (Tario, 2013) and that tourist product are priced differently to attract the two travel markets. While product pricing is affecting international tourists, domestic tourists, on the other hand, find it affordable to purchase traditional clothes compared to international tourists.

Overall, the literature has highlighted that international tourists traveled to Tanzania for leisure and the past studies have indicated that leisure travellers are price sensitive compared to business travellers (Lehto *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, once they suspect that the product price is high, they will try to avoid buying the product.

Apart from pricing, the issue of security could also affect tourist purchasing decision, because most of the shops are located around the big city streets, where there are so many people. This situation can affect tourist's purchasing behaviour because some of them may be concerned about their security. Yüksel and Yüksel (2007) identified that incidence such as being mugged or conned while shopping can limit tourists from engaging in such activity. At times, it may even affect their future travel plans. Researchers further highlighted that if tourists think that purchasing products are risky, they are more likely not to take part in that

activity. Also, they may not recommend that activity to their family and friends. Generally, tourists prefer shopping in a risk-free environment (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2007).

The language barrier could be another reason why both employed and unemployed international tourists prefer purchasing traditional clothes. In Tanzania, people speak Swahili as a medium of communication; hence, this can limit the international tourists' bargaining power. Yüksel and Yüksel (2007) believe that language barrier can have an effect on the way tourists perceive the quality of the products.

The overall findings indicate that occupation plays a crucial role in explaining travel behaviour. This factor has been used to understand travellers' activity preferences (Bourdieu & Darbel, 1991, cited in Huang & Bian, 2009), such as shopping (Dholakia, 1999). Researchers such Demir (2003) argued that occupation status does not only affect the activity choice but also has an impact on the number of activities that are undertaken by people. Despite the fact that occupation was proved to have a significant factor on travel activities, its effect was not strong since it accounted 12% of the total variance for beach activity, 13% for visiting islands and 16% for purchasing of traditional clothes. This finding indicates that occupation as one of the demographic factors is a weak predictor of travel activities. This finding is somewhat consistent with the work of Johns and Gymothy (2002) and Reisinger and Mavondo (2004).

Apart from occupation, this study also examined the role played by marital status and family size in influencing activity preferences among tourists. The study specifically examined the difference in marital status and family size in relation to travel activities. The current study first found that there was no significant difference in preference for travel activities among single and married tourists. The finding is somehow surprising since one would expect the two groups to have different activity preferences.

This finding is contrary to what was reported by Lee and Bhargava (2004) that singles do participate in different activities compared to married individuals. This could be explained by the fact that singles are free from household and family responsibilities than married couples. A similar idea was also supported by Eberth and Smith (2010) that the idea that single women and married women do differ in terms of activity participation and that singles are more likely to be physically active therefore they can take part in physical activities compared to married women.

Furthermore, this study also found that there was no significant difference in preference for travel activities among tourists with small and large family size. This implies that both local and international tourists irrespective of their family size prefer similar travel activities. One would expect that the bigger the family size, the harder will be for that family to take a vacation, except for those with high incomes. A plausible explanation as to why this study found no significant differences between the two groups could be explained by the fact that when it comes to travel vacation, children play an important role in influencing their parents from taking a vacation (Webster, 2000; Wang *et al.*, 2004; Harcar *et al.*, 2005; Xia *et al.*, 2006), although their influence could be based on their own preferences. On the other hand, parents may be forced to participate in certain activities such as visiting historical sites or visiting beaches so that to create a bond with their children. Parents also play a key role in influencing their children to be active in certain activities. For instance, the literature highlights that participation of children in sport or physical activities is influenced by the role played by their parents. Children would be actively involved in sports if their parents and siblings also participate (Coleman, Cox & Roker, 2008).

7.4 Relationship between Travel Motivation and Travel Activities

Tourists are travelling for multiple reasons (Crompton, 1979), and individuals' might have different travel motives of taking local or international trips. This has been attributed to the fact that different destinations have different travel activities; hence, tourists enjoy the opportunity of choosing the kind of destination that offers the travel activities they prefer. In this study, the relationship between different travel motivations and travel activities were statistically examined.

The result offered support for the relationship between travel motivation and travel activities. It was found that social travel motivation positively influenced sightseeing activities. The result from this study confirmed the findings from the activity based model developed by Moscardo *et al.* (1996) that there is a critical link between travel motivation and activities. These researchers further found that individuals' who travels for social reasons prefer to participate in sports activities, cruises, water sports and snow skiing. This study found that social travel motivation was reported to have a positive influence on sightseeing activities (such as city attractions, visiting islands and beaches).

This means that tourists (local and international) were motivated by the “desire to interact with others”, to be “socially competent” and also to “gain a feeling of belonging” when they engaged in sightseeing activities. This finding is somehow correlated with the work of Vuuren and Slabbert (2011) that desire for personal values was one among the motives that attracted tourists from visiting South African resorts. In the same pursuit, Müderrisoğlu, Demir and Kutay (2005) found that the need for socialization motivates visitors' to visit the seashore. Leung (2000) reporting a similar finding that social interaction/self-fulfillment has an impact on the desire for tourist to participate in cultural activities (part of city attraction).

Since there is limited information regarding the influence of social travel motivation on activities, this study has managed to show that there is a connection between social travel factor and travel activities. So far the existing literature is silent over the casual relations between these factors. Therefore, having an understanding of this knowledge is important to tourism stakeholders because such knowledge can be used to predict the kinds of activities that tourists might participate in the future.

In addition to that, the study also indicates that outdoor activities (mountain climbing, hunting and camping) were positively influenced by mastery competency travel motivation. This implies that both local and international tourists are motivated by a desire to challenge their abilities, to be active and to develop physical fitness when participating in outdoor activities. This finding is somewhat consistent with the finding of Pomfret (2006) who revealed that developing one's ability and gaining control were among the key travel motivations that attracted mountaineering tourists from taking an adventure trip. It was further reported that other travel motives that attracted them include the recognition of being a mountaineer, desire for experiencing a challenge and risk activity, relaxation and the desire to have a peace of mind. Similar observation was also reported by Kim and Lehto (2011) that family's that were motivated by mastery competency participated in active outdoor activities. The implication of this finding could be explained by the fact that different countries view the importance of outdoors activities differently. For example, in developed countries, people see outdoor activities as a way to unwind their social problems.

In America, people view outdoor activities as part and parcel of their lives. The most important thing is that the notion that a nice to have, have changed to a must have and made possible by their leaders across the country after they appreciate the undeniable economic, social and health benefits of outdoor recreations (Outdoor Industry Association, 2012). In

Europe, people are overly concerned about their health problems which are caused by stress, diabetes and obesity. As a result, outdoor activities are seen as a solution to curb these problems.

In the context of Africa, outdoors activities such as hunting have always proved to be difficult to be practiced. This has been attributed to the fact that this activity is perceived to be meant for wealthy foreign elites (Leader-Williams, Kayera & Overtoil, 1996). Furthermore, participation in other outdoor activity such as mountain climbing is associated with problems such as acute mountain sickness and high-altitude pulmonary edema. These problems may lead people to believe the above assumption that outdoor activities are meant for foreigners. However, the finding of this study has proved otherwise that even domestic tourists are pushed to undertake outdoors activities for the same reasons as international tourists.

Overall, literature has highlighted that outdoor lovers participate in adventurous activities for different reasons. Generally, those who are high sensational seekers are likely to take part in risk activities such as mountain climbing for the sake of getting excitement and novelty. Factors such as the desire to experience risk, uncertainty, danger, novelty, stimulation, excitement, absorption of skills, challenge and escapism are reported to be among the core travel motives that attract an adventure traveller (Swarbrooke *et al.*, 2003).

This study also found that stimulus avoidance travels motivation influence sightseeing activities positively. This implies that tourists have been visiting city attractions, beach, and islands because they “want to relax physically and mentally”, to rest, to relieve stress and tensions. In tourism studies, this travel motive has been extensively researched by different researchers. However, they have been employed it using different names to address it in their motivation studies. For instance, Crompton (1979) and Yuan and McDonald (1990)

employed it as an escape motive, Crandall (1980) named it as an escape from routine and responsibility motive, Beard and Ragheb (1983) employed it as stimulus avoidance motive.

Although this motive has been addressed extensively, its connection to sightseeing activities was unclear. So far, relaxation and escaping travel motivation are believed to be among the two crucial psychological factors that drive an individual from taking an overseas trip (Krippendorf, 1987). Therefore, tourists are often choosing a vacation after they think that there is a need to relax or escape and their satisfaction can be met in another country. Thus, it is understandable to see tourists taking part in these activities, because being active in those activities could mean getting away from their stressful lives. The findings of this study are somewhat supported by Park and Hsieh (2008) who found that getting away from daily life and escaping from stressful life was one among the travel motivations that pushed tourists to visit islands.

This study further reveals that sightseeing activities were positively influenced by intellectual travel motivation. Extensive researches have been done using intellectual travel motive. However, tourism researchers have been using this travel motivation using different labels. For example, Crompton (1979) have used it as an educational motive, others such as Dunn and Iso-Ahola (1991) employed it as the general knowledge motive while, Ryan and Glendon (1998) used it the same way as Beard and Ragheb (1983).

Although in tourism extensive studies have been done using this travel motivation, the link between this travel motivations and sightseeing activities is unclear. The current study found a positive relationship between intellectual travel motivation and sightseeing activities. This implies that both local and international tourists are motivated to visit beach areas, islands and city attractions for the sake of learning. This finding somehow corroborates with

Anderson (2010) findings that domestic tourists are reported to be seen visiting city attractions such as antiquities, beaches, and national museums though the motive behind their visits was not clearly stated.

One of the reasons why they chose to visit these areas could be associated with the fact that they want to learn more about their country's history. While on the other hand, international tourists participated in sightseeing activities for the sake of learning Tanzanian culture. This includes learning the Swahili language. The findings of this study are supported by the previous work of Mahika (2011) supports the findings of this study that tourists who choose vacations based on their intellectual desire prefer to use their free time learning new skills, visiting attractions such as museums, art galleries, and cultural areas. For tourists who are intellectually motivated, their holiday is incomplete if they do not get time to learn. Furthermore, the Mahika's finding collaborates with Leung (2000) results, that intellectual was the key motivating factor for travellers who engaged in sightseeing activities. Other studies that support the relationship between intellectual travel motivation and sightseeing activity include a work of Poria, Butler, and Airey (2004) who identified that the desire to have heritage experience, to learn the history of a place and the need for recreational experience were the three key reasons attracted tourists to visit city attraction (heritage sites).

In addition to this, Che and Yang (2011) also examined motivation and travel intention among tourists who visited a new beach destination in China. They found that the desire to learn new and interesting things about that area, need to experience a different culture and the desire to see how other people live were identified to be among the key factors that pushed them to that destination. Other studies such as a work by Müderrisoğlu, Demir and Kutay (2005) tried to examine the relationships between travel motivation and rural recreational

activity participation. In their study, they found that students whose travel motive was learning participated in historical activities (a part of city attractions).

Additionally, this study also tested the relationship between entertainment activities and social travel motivation. The results were different for the two travel markets. For the international market the relationship was proved to be positive but for the local market the relationship was negative that meaning that the desire to interact with others, to be socially competent and also to gain a feeling of belonging were not significant factors influencing domestic tourists from participating in entertainment activities such as casinos and nightclubs. This situation could be explained better by their lifestyles. The gambling behaviour is not a part of Tanzanian culture; people are working hard to sustain their lives by making sure that they are able to provide the basic needs to their families. According to CIA World fact book (2014), about 36% (based on 2002 estimation) of the population in the country is still living below the poverty line. This indicates that it is not easy for this population to go and spend on entertainments what they earn. To them, they can attain their social desires by participating in other activities such as visiting beaches, islands or visiting city attractions.

After all, it is not necessary for gamblers to participate in gaming activities for social reasons. For instance, Terras, Singth and Moufakkir (2000) found that social factors such as sense of belonging were the least travel motives for elderly female gamblers to participate in gaming activities. To them, factors such as excitement, escaping, entertainment were the key motives that push them to visit casino. For the international travel market, the finding indicates that entertainment activities (casinos and nightclubs) were positively influenced by social travel motive which implies that international tourists were positively motivated to participate in casino gaming activities and visited nightclubs for the sake of meeting other people. This

finding is supported by the Swarbrooke and Horner's (1999) work that individuals' who are socially motivated are likely to take part in nightlife activities such as visiting nightclubs.

Müderrisoğlu, Demir and Kutay (2005) also found that there is significant relationship between the frequency of individual's entertainment activity participation and the desire for socialization. Therefore, it is not surprising to see someone who is socially motivated taking an active part in entertainment activities because such individuals' enjoys meeting new people and prefers nightlife and shopping activities (Horneman, Wei & Ruys, 2002). Another reason why the relationship between social travel motive and entertainment activities was positive to international travel market could be due to the fact that the majority of European, North America, and some countries in Asia have recognized the economic importance of gambling as a leisure activity. The current information indicates that worldwide, the gaming industry is growing at a faster pace. As a result, gambling opportunities are increasing (Lee *et al.*, 2006). In countries such as Canada, USA, Korea, and China casinos have become one of the popular tourist attractions.

In the current study, an additional path from social travel motivation and shopping was included in the structural models for both local and international market. The final result indicates that shopping activities were positively influenced by social travel motives for both travel markets. This implies that both local and international tourists engaged in shopping (buying of traditional clothes, jewelry and carving products) had intentions of interacting with other people and gain a feeling of belonging.

Past studies have indicated that shoppers are motivated by psychosocial desires (Tauber, 1972 cited in Arnold & Reynolds, 2003). Some of the psychosocial attributes include social motives such as social experiences, meeting with other people, peer group attractions and pleasure of bargaining. Therefore, shopping generally occurs when an individual is in need

for a particular product, or when an individual has a desire for attention, need to meet new people with similar interest, or feels like they need to unwind their social life by exercising or simply need a leisure time with friends.

Other researchers pointed out that social travel motives play a crucial role in explaining shoppers' behaviour (Dholakia, 1999). Some researchers such as Horneman, Wei, and Ruys (2002) see shopping as a platform where people meet. Shopping is hardly seen as the core travel motive. It is, however, an important leisure activity (MacCannell, 2002; Timothy, 2005). To some travellers, vacation is incomplete without going shopping (Kent, Schock, & Snow, 1983 cited in Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Previous studies have suggested that tourists do spend more on shopping than on entertainment, food or accommodation (Turner & Reisinger, 2001).

In Tanzania, there are quite a good number of shopping centers in almost every part of the country. They differ in terms of size, location, and in terms of the nature of products they sell. Both small and large businessmen/women are involved in the business of selling handmade traditional stuff to the residents and tourists. In Zanzibar, the famous souvenir shops are found in areas such as Shangani, Stone town, Mkunazini, Darajani, Gizenga or Hurumzi. Apart from traditional clothes and carving products, the two islands of Tanzania (i.e., Zanzibar and Pemba) are famously known for spices, this is why Zanzibar is recognized as a spice island. Tourists prefer purchasing these products as a souvenir. All the souvenir shops are located in such a way that tourists will get a chance of meeting and possibly making friends.

Overall, the previous travel motivation studies have managed to show the existence of the relationships between travel motivation and activities, although the focus of the studies was narrowed to specific tourist settings. For example, Pan and Ryan (2007) examined visitors'

motives to forest park, Slater (2007) focused on art gallery events, Hamdan and Yusof, (2014), Doliting, Aminuddin & Soon (2015) dedicated their studies to sports activities, Hasniza (2014) focused on theme park, Kim, Uysal and Chen (2009), Nyaupane, White and Badruk (2006) based on cultural events, Platz and Millar (2001), Lee *et al.* (2006) and Park *et al.* (2002) focused on gambling, Mehmetoglu (2005) focused on nature-based areas, while others Li, Huang, and Cai (2009), Lee, Lee and Wicks (2004) focused on festival events, and Park and Hsieh (2008), Che and Yang (2011), Kassean and Gassita, 2013) dealt with beach and islands tourism.

The reason as to why the previous studies have focused on specific tourism setting could be due to the fact that addressing the relationship between individual needs and activity choice is somehow difficult (Iso-Ahola & Allen, 1982; Beard & Ragheb, 1983). Individual behaviour is believed to be multidimensional (Maslow, 1943), that is the same activity may be motivated differently by different people or that the importance of one activity may be perceived differently by different people at the same time (Crandall, 1980). No matter how hard the relationships may be the former motivation studies still offer an insight into why people choose to travel to new destinations and take part in various activities.

The current study has appreciated the work of the previous studies by recognising the existence of the relationship between travel motivation and tourist activity. However, this study went ahead and proved that different travel motivation influence preference for travel activities differently. The findings of this study empirically justified the existence of the relationship between mastery competency travel motivation and outdoor activities, intellectual travel motivation and sightseeing activities, social travel motivation, and shopping activities and stimulus avoidance travel motivation and sightseeing activities.

7.5 Relationship between Personality and Preference for Travel Activities

Apart from the assessment of travel motivation, this study also examined the influence of personality traits on travel activities. Personality is one among the important factors for predicting leisure preferences and participation (Barnett, 2013). The role of personality in influencing activity has been extensively studied by several researchers including a work by Plog (1974), Kolanowski and Richards (2002), Egan and Stelmack (2003), Gretzel *et al.* (2004), Kraaykamp and Eijck (2005), Lu and Hu (2005), Barnett (2006), Scott and Mowen (2007), Nettle (2007), Lucas, Le and Dyrenforth (2008), Chamorro-Premuzic *et al.* (2009), Tsao and Chang (2010), Kuo and Tang (2011), Mehmetoglu (2012), Howard (2013), Jani (2014), Yannick *et al.* (2014) and Tennur and Lapa (2015). The overall findings indicate that personality has a role to play in influencing the choice of activities. Similar results have also found in this study, it was found that shopping activities are positively influenced by closed to new experience personality. Literature reports that individuals who are closed to new experience are believed not to be imaginative, they are not curious about the inner or the outer world, they do not like to entertain novel ideas, they have no interest in artistic activities, they cannot engage in learning activities and they cannot eagerly control their emotions compared to those who are open (Costa & McCrae, 1995). Therefore, it is not surprising to see an individual of such nature to engage in shopping.

Shopping as a tourist activity creates a conducive and appealing environment and at the same time acts as a travel motivation. It is considered to be one of the sources of pleasure and excitement to tourists (Turner & Reisinger, 2001), this is why this concept cannot be separated from tourism (Khairunnisa, Yuniarti & Harmayani, 2016). Past studies such as Jones (1999) and Rabbiosi (2014) have shown that shopping goes far beyond purchasing a

product. It offers a traveller the opportunity to interact with other people, to socialize with friends or simply to window shop.

Jones (1999) further concluded that consumers do see the shopping experience as entertainment or a recreational activity. Therefore, it is understandable to see a tourist who is closed to new experience engaging in shopping activities, because shoppers are motivated by the desire to socialize with friends (Jones, 1999), having fun (Crick-Furman & Prentice, 2000), enjoying and relaxing (Bussey, 1987).

Although this study has shown that closed to new experience personality is positively related to shopping, Tsao and Chang (2010) and Jani (2014) found that individuals who are highly neurotic, agreeable, or high in openness to experience tend to be motivated to shopping. Since there has been a little study regarding the influence of closed to new experience personality on travel activities, this study supports the hypothesis that closed to new experience personality influences shopping positively.

This study also examined the relationship between neurotic personality and sightseeing activities. Surprisingly, the result indicates that sightseeing activities are negatively influenced by neurotic personality in both travel markets. Previous personality studies have indicated that individuals who are neurotic are pessimistic, troubled, depressed, emotionally unstable, worried, low self-esteem, anxious, and guilty (Eysenck, 2009; Tennur & Lapa, 2015; Rupinder and Gaganpreet, 2015). They tend to avoid situations where they will lead or take control of any situation (Saleem, Beaudry & Croteau, 2011). Individuals' with such personality are not risk takers, therefore, cannot take part in adventure activities (Egan, & Stelmack, 2003; Nettle, 2007; Mehmetoglu, 2012) or sports activities (Barnett, 2006) but can take part in soft activities such as cultural or entertainments activities (Tsao & Chang, 2010; Mehmetoglu, 2012).

It was expected that since neurotics are not adventurous, then it would be easy for them to take part in soft activities such as visiting beaches, islands and city attractions. It shows that the finding of this study is not consistent with the previous studies. The reason as to why the relationship between neurotic personality and sightseeing is negative to both travel markets could be explained by the fact that neurotics are believed to have less interest in participating in most of the leisure activities (Argyle & Lu, 1990; Lu & Hu, 2005), they also do not get satisfied with leisure activities (Ruggeri, Pacati & Goldberg, 2003).

In the same line, this study also examined the effect of neurotic personality on shopping activity. The finding reports that for local travel market, there was no relationship between shopping and neurotic personality. Neurotics are regarded as psycho-centric; they prefer visiting common destinations and choose the kind of activity they are used to for the sake of avoiding risks (Plog, 1974). Since neurotics are non-adventurous, they were expected to be seen actively involving themselves in non-adventurous activities such as shopping.

The previous studies have reported that personality plays an important role in influencing individuals' purchasing behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2010; Solomon, 2011; Udo-Imeh, 2015). Although the role of personality in predicting individuals' purchasing behaviour has been acknowledged by researchers, there is no conclusive finding regarding the existence of the relationships between these constructs (Udo-Imeh, 2015). However, like some researchers who still believe that personality traits are key factors in influencing the purchasing behaviour (e.g., Mulyanegara, Tsarenko & Anderson, 2007). Therefore, the finding of this study is somehow supported by the work of Udo-Imeh (2015), who found that neuroticism personality was one among the weakest personality factor for influencing the purchasing decision.

In international travel market, shopping was positively influenced by neurotic personality. Results somewhat concur with the finding of Tsao and Chang (2010) that individuals who are neurotic are regarded as loners and that they prefer shopping online than coming into contact with other people. Furthermore, these individuals are believed to have low self-esteem, high levels of anxiety and are usually depressed (Costa & McCrae, 1985). Each of these attributes is related with compulsive buying (Ergin, 2010). Therefore, it is expected to see someone who is neurotic to be irrational when it comes to shopping. The reason why such finding was positive to international travel market could be attributed to the fact that shopping is considered as one among the key travel motives and is regarded as an important travel activity (MacCannell, 2002; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Moscardo, 2004; Timothy, 2005). This activity is normally conducted by tourists during their holiday vacations and is seen as an enjoyable activity (Christiansen & Snepenger, 2002; Casagrade, 2015). Therefore, it is not surprising to see a neurotic international traveller involved in shopping, because when it comes to this activity, tourist (regardless of his/her personality) do spend a lot on shopping than on food, accommodation or entertainment activities (Turner & Reisinger, 2001). Some of them are buying souvenirs to remind themselves regarding the enjoyable experience and the place they visited (Hitchcock, 2000).

Some do purchase things because they have a culture of gift giving. For instance, British, French people, Americans, and Germans have a culture of giving gifts, though they differ in preferences when purchasing souvenirs and gifts (Pizam & Reichel 1996). Another reason could be in some developed countries shopping is very important activity, and it has reached a point where people are taking shopping tours. For instance, shopping tours have become a popular activity in Asia, North America and Europe (Timothy, 2005).

Also, the role of culture in influencing shopping could be another reason. It is agreed that culture among other factors plays an important role in influencing shoppers' behaviour (Kim & Litrell, 2001; Kim, Timothy & Hwang, 2010). However, a combination of culture plus other factors such as personal and social factors could highlight more on shopper's behaviour and their preferences (Wong & Law, 2003).

Although few studies have explored the role of personality in the understanding of tourist behaviour, this factor plays an important role in understanding tourist destination choice and activities. Past studies have managed to show that individual's personality does influence ones' activity choice. Therefore, tourism key players should not overlook the importance of these factors and that they should use them wisely because such information can help them to develop proper strategies to communicate and design their services better (Jani, 2014).

7.6 Relationship between Travel Motivation and Destination Image

This study examined the relationship between different travel motivations and destination image. The findings indicate that in both travel markets, travel motivations such as stimulus avoidance and mastery competency influenced destination image positively. Thus, this implies that tourists used their emotions when they make a travel decision. Their decision to escape, relax, to relieve stress and tension and their desire to compete, to be active and become physically fit are driven by their emotions.

It is believed that psychological motivation factors such as relaxation, escape, personal and interpersonal problems, desire to learn other peoples' culture and enjoying entertainments as identified by Kozak (2002); Kim, Lee and Klenosky (2003) and Yoon and Uysal (2005) are regarded to be among the most important factors in forming a destination image (Moutinho, 1987). Thus, it is not surprising to see the two travel motivations influenced destination image positively. Overall the finding of this study is supported by Baloglu and

McCleary (1999), Beerli and Martin (2004), Ma (2008), Tang (2013) and Pratminingsih, Lipuringtyas and Rimenta (2014), that travel motivation influenced tourist perceived images positively, although these studies focused on pull and push travel motives, not on Beard and Ragheb (1983) travel motives.

This study further found that social travel motivation influenced destination image negatively in both travel markets. This implies that both local and international tourists did not involve their emotions when interacted or meeting other people in various tourist attractions. The possible reason could be explained by their primary travel motives, as it was pointed out earlier factors such as the desire for having a relaxed mind, ability to rest, desire to compete, to be physically fit, ability to compete with other people and the desire to get rid of their routine life were their primary travel motives this is why they put their emotions in those travel motives than in social motive.

This study also examined the influence of intellectual travel motivation on destination image. The result found that intellectual travel motive was positively influenced destination image in the international travel market; however, the result was negative on the other travel market. The reason why the relationship was positive to international travel market and not on the local travel market could be explained by the differences in the culture of reading.

The culture of reading is high in developed nations like Europe and America compared to developing countries such as Tanzania. This reality is clearly reflected by the differences in the level of literacy rate among these countries. Kimanuka (2015) highlighted that leading countries such as Europe and America appreciate the culture of reading and that their level of literacy is high in their society and it is one among the major sources of their effectiveness and growth. Unfortunately, the same trend is not observed in most of the African countries.

Therefore, it is not surprising to see an international tourist involve emotions when it comes to the issue of gaining knowledge compared to domestic tourists. Past studies have also suggested that those travellers who travel entirely for intellectual reason are more likely to use most of their free time learning new things, participating in learning activities such as visiting museums, art galleries and visiting historical places. These people are the ones who are keen to learn something new at any cost when they are on holiday (Mahika, 2011).

7.7 Relationship between Personality and Destination Image

This study also examined the relationship between personality and destination image. Personality traits were found to have an effect on destination image. As it was predicted, in both travel markets destination image was negatively influenced by neurotic personality trait. This finding was supported by works of Mooradian and Olver (1997) and Vaidya *et al.* (2002). In their studies, they found that a neurotic personality trait is associated with a negative emotion (Mooradian & Olver, 1997; Vaidya *et al.*, 2002).

It was further reported that neurotic personality is related to negative affect because neurotic is believed to be an individual who is sad and guilty. Similar findings were also confirmed by Diener and Seligman (2002) and Gutiérrez *et al.* (2005) that individuals who are neurotics are more likely to experience negative emotions compared to extroverts. It was further reported that fear (negative emotion) is related to neuroticism (Matzler & Mooradian, 2011).

On the other hand, closed to new experience personally was found to have a positive a relationship with destination image. Closed to new experience personally individuals are believed to be closed minded, un-adventurous and are neither imaginative nor experienced compared to those who are open to new experience. The finding of this study implies that the more individual is becoming closed minded the more emotional he/she can be. Emotional individuals have less level of disgust during the middle section of their trip compared to those

who are less emotional (Lin *et al.*, 2014). Since there is limited information on the existence of the relationship between this personality trait and destination image then this study fills in the existing knowledge gap by proving the existence of a relationship between these factors.

All in all, personality plays an important role in influencing destination image. It is one among the factors influenced individuals' emotional states (Gountas & Gountas, 2007; Lin *et al.*, 2014). Tourism stakeholders need to take this information seriously because such details can be used to predict individuals' behaviour. As it was highlighted in the literature that a neurotic is someone who is negative emotionally then tourism stakeholders need to make sure that the image of the country is not tarnished if the country's target is to attract more neurotic tourists. For the case of closed minded tourists, the destination managers should make sure that they offer the best services to these tourists because they will judge the experience of their vacation entirely based on their emotions.

7.8 Relationship between Destination Image and Activities

This study also explored the role of destination image in influencing various travel activities. It was found that destination image positively influenced activities such as entertainment, shopping and sightseeing activities. This implies that tourists involve their emotions when participating in these activities. This finding is not surprising since the consumption of hedonic vacation experiences involves tourists' emotions (Mattila, 1999).

The findings of this study are supported by the work of previous researchers. For instance, emotions that an individual experienced while shopping affect shoppers spending ability (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982), satisfaction (Machleit & Mantel, 2001), determines their willingness to purchase (Baker, Levy & Grewal, 1992) and also affects their intention to do online purchase (Rose *et al.*, 2012). Positive emotions like pleasure influence individuals'

purchasing behaviour (Menon & Kahn, 2002) also affects their attitude, as well as their intention to repurchase in future.

Like in any other activity, emotions also play an important role in entertainment activities. Factors such as social and physical environment, service quality and ambience of the casino are among the factors that affect casino customers' emotional experience (Wall *et al.*, 2011; Wong, 2013). If the casino customer develops negative emotion regarding the activities or the quality of service offered, then this can have an impact on their decision to visit that casino in the future. On the other hand, if a customer develops positive emotions the possibility for that individual to return to the same casino or to recommend it to other people is high.

This study also found a negative relationship between destination image and outdoor activities. This implies that tourists (both local and international) did not involve their emotions when participating in outdoors activities. This finding is contrary to what was published by Pomfret (2006), Carnicelli-Filho, Schwartz and Tahara (2009) and Faillant, Matzler and Mooradian (2011) who found that emotions play an important role in influencing adventure activities. Pomfret (2006) further suggests that there is a close connection between mountaineering and emotional experience. It was added that when individuals are taking part in any adventure activities, they tend to experience different emotions. Their emotions are influenced by factors such as personality traits, perception, and lifestyle. Faillant, Matzler and Mooradian (2011) also concur with Pomfret's (2006) findings that adventure activities such as mountaineering induce strong emotions that significantly influence tourist satisfaction.

Overall, it shows that destination image (emotions) does play an important role in explaining individuals' desire to participate in different activities. The previous studies have tried to enlighten the contribution of an individual's emotion in different settings such as adventure life, shopping and casino. The lesson gained from these studies is that individual's involve emotions when taking part in any activity. This is because individuals have a tendency of evaluating each service based on the experience gained. If they feel that the experience was good then they may decide to return to the same destination in future, if the experience was evaluated negatively then the chance for those individuals to return to the same destination is very low. Also, the previous studies have suggested that the effect of emotions varies based on the nature of destination or activity; this could be simply explained by individuals' psychographic factors such as motivation, attitudes, lifestyle and values.

Therefore, destination managers and tourism stakeholders need to make sure that the country's image is projected positively both within the country and even outside the country because emotions have shown to have a significant effect on visitors' choice of destination and activity.

7.9 Role of Destination Image as a Mediating Variable

In this study, destination image was employed as a variable mediating the effect of the relationship between travel motivations and personality on travel activities. The findings of this study did not confirm the existence of mediation effect as it was predicted in Figure Figure 3.1. This implies that there was only direct effect between travel motivation and travel activities and between personality traits and travel activities.

Specifically, this simply means that to the greatest extent tourists' activity preference is explained mainly by their travel motivations and their personality traits and that emotion (destination image) has no significant role to play in explaining their activity preferences. The

finding of this study is not supported by the findings of the previous studies including a work by Moscardo *et al.* (1996). However, despite the fact that destination image did not have a mediation effect this factor was still proved to be a significant factor in influencing shopping and sightseeing activities.

7.10 Differences in Preference for Travel Activities

Another objective of this study was to examine the differences in preference for travel activities among local and international tourists. The overall findings indicated that the two travel markets differ significantly in preference for visiting beaches, city attractions, going to nightclubs, buying traditional clothes and traditional jewelries and camping. Domestic tourists were reported to have high mean values for all activities compared to internationals. One can be tempted to argue that this could be due to the fact that traveling has become relatively much more affordable.

The affordability is related to the effect of globalization which has reduced the significance of national boundaries and market liberalisation which has resulted in cost competitiveness in turn. Because of this, local tourists have started taking leisure trips to different parts of the world as a result they get exposed to other people's culture including learning about other people's interests. In addition to that, free trips to various tourist attractions and preferential rates designed to attract domestic tourists could be one of the reason why domestic tourists have shown interests in these activities compared to internationals. The finding of this study somewhat concurs with the previous studies that preference for travel activities differ among travellers (Dolnicar, 2002; Onome, 2004; Chow & Murphy, 2008; Choi, Murray & Kwan, 2011). Therefore, based on the study findings, the two travel markets are not homogeneous and it would be inadvisable to treat them as belonging to a homogenous market segment.

CHAPTER EIGHT

IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Chapter Overview

The previous chapter discussed the study findings. Results from different techniques such as descriptive statistics, independent t-test, MANOVA, and SEM were discussed in detail in Chapter Six. This chapter discusses the implication of the study findings. The major findings of this study offer significant managerial and theoretical implications for tourism stakeholders, destination managers, and the policy makers. The limitations of the study and the recommendations for areas for future research are also presented in this chapter.

8.2 Managerial Implications

Destinations are viewed as places which offer activities (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). Today, travel destinations are competing in attracting tourists and the challenges that destination managers face are getting harder day after day. In Tanzania specifically, the tourism industry is still growing, and the country is competing with other African countries such as Kenya and South Africa. As a result, the government and tourism stakeholders in the country are struggling to meet the needs of their potential customers while looking for better ways to attract more customers.

Also, this is possible through a clear understanding of customers' needs and preferences before embarking on any strategy to promote the country's attractions. Furthermore, in an increasingly saturated market like that of tourism, an understanding of tourist preference is important to destination managers. Since tourism destinations provide multiple travel activities, such as historical sites, for example, museums, city attractions, and traditional clothes; natural attractions including beach, and vegetation; and man-made resources such as

dams, a systematic analysis of preference for travel activities and the factors affecting it is required. This analytical assessment can add value to the existing travel activity studies.

First, the findings of this study indicate that visiting city attractions, islands and participating in beach activities are among the three top preferred travel activities for both travel markets implying that the preferences for travel activities among tourists can be explained better by these three activities. Thus, destination managers should focus more on these activities when promoting the country's attractions within and outside the country and also when redesigning their tourism products in the long term development plans.

Furthermore, it was observed that entertainment activities such as visiting casinos and nightclubs were among the least preferred activities. These results provide vital information for tourism stakeholders to be able to focus more on the preferred activities than focusing on promoting all activities to both within and outside the country.

Also, the promotional campaigns to the market beach and islands in the country should go hand in hand with the promotion of other travel activities such as scuba diving, surfing and boat cruising. This strategy will attract tourists from different countries such as Germany, Oman, Denmark, Australia, South Africa, Italy and DRC. Apart from these attractions, more joint promotional campaigns are needed between walking tours and sightseeing activities. These activities may usually attract more tourists from countries like Switzerland, Australia, and Mozambique. On the other hand, cultural activities should be diversified to include activities such as trips to visit the local community, opportunity to allow tourists to participate in traditional dances and visit art galleries.

Secondly, this study found that the preference for visiting beaches, islands, and purchasing of traditional clothes were significantly influenced by tourists' occupation. This implies that

tourism stakeholders should make sure that they use these demographic factors wisely because such information can be used as one of the strategies in segmenting travel markets. Along the same line, beach and island tourism should be marketed to both employed and unemployed domestic tourists and traditional clothes should be targeted to unemployed domestic tourists than international tourists.

Thirdly, this study further found that the two travel markets were not homogeneous and that they can be differentiated based on preference for visiting beaches, city attractions, going to nightclubs, purchasing of traditional clothes and jewelry, as well as camping. Therefore, it would be in the interests of destination marketers to highlight the existing differences when they market these attractions. For instance, tour operators may find it beneficial to focus more on these activities when promoting local travel market than international market.

Fourthly, the study also found a positive relationship between travel motivation and the preferences for travel activities. Therefore, destination managers should know that tourists are motivated to travel to Tanzania with the intention of engaging in sightseeing activities because of the travel motives such as the desire to relax physically, to relax mentally, to rest, to relieve stress tension and to unstructured their time.

Other travel motives such as the desire to challenge others, to be active, to develop physical fitness should be used to segment tourists who prefer outdoor activities. While, the need to explore ideas, knowledge and to satisfy tourist curiosity should be used to segment those who want to take part in sightseeing activities. Therefore, these results could help destination marketers better understand the key motives that attract tourists to participate in travel activities. In short, different travel motives should be emphasized when marketing different activities. There is a need to match travel motivations with specific travel activity.

This result is likely to help tourism stakeholders and marketers to develop appropriate competitive strategies to market these activities to specific targets. For instance, those who have a passion for sightseeing activities (such as visiting historical sites, museums, islands and beach) can be segmented as learners while, those who prefer outdoor activities (such as mountain climbing, hunting, and camping) can be segmented as adventurers thus helping to develop a more precise and cost-effective approach to marketing the right activity to the right tourist.

Fifthly, this study also reports that personality has an important role to play in influencing travel activities. However, marketing of traditional clothes, jewelry and carving products should be targeted to tourists who are not sensational seekers and advertising campaigns to market traditional stuff should be displayed as a fun and safe activity. This will attract more international tourists because this target market focuses more on their safety when they shop. In the same line, sellers should also display their products online because tourists who are neurotic prefer online shopping.

Additionally, this study reports that although destination image does not mediate the effect of the relationship between travel motivation and personality on travel activities, this factor was shown to be one of the factors influencing sightseeing and shopping activities. Thus, destination image can be regarded as an antecedent of some of the travel activities. Therefore, destination managers must struggle to improve the image tourists hold of a destination if they want to survive in a competitive tourism business. This is important because once the image is created; it is difficult to change. Hence, tourism stakeholders are urged to make sure that the right image is presented and maintained.

8.3 Theoretical Implications

One of the theoretical contributions of this study is the fact that it is one among the studies to incorporate destination image, travel motivation and personality into the study of travel activities; and to further empirically examined their structural relationships across the two travel markets. Although there are abundant studies in tourism on destination image, travel motivation, personality and travel activities as individual constructs, most of the travel motivation studies have focused on addressing the effects of pull and push factors in specific activity.

Since there are limited studies that have examined the combined effects of different travel motivations and personality traits on different travel activities; therefore, investigating these relationships all together can help to expand our understanding of the whole concept of travel activities.

Furthermore, the findings of this study add knowledge on the activity based model because this theory did not address the relationship between personality and destination image. However, just like travel motivation, personality traits as one among the psychographic factors has a role to play in influencing destination image (emotion). Past studies have highlighted that personality is one among the important factors influencing individuals' emotion over the long term.

Despite the fact that researchers have acknowledged the importance of emotions in predicting individual behaviour, less attention has been offered to the idea that emotions can be explained by ones' personality traits (Diener, 1984). Therefore, this study included personality traits in the activity model in determining its effect on destination image. In the same line, this study also examined the effects of personality on travel activities. This is because the existing personality studies have focused on examining its role in influencing

leisure activities (Kolanowski & Richards, 2002; Kuo & Tang, 2011; Howard, 2013) or online shopping (Tsao & Chang, 2010) and general art activities (Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004) instead of addressing travel activities such as sightseeing, outdoor, entertainment and shopping activities in the context of Tanzania.

8.5 Conclusion

First, the results of this study provide sufficient empirical evidence that visiting city attractions, islands, and beaches are the top three preferred travel activities for both travel markets while, entertainment activities such as visiting casinos and nightclubs were reported to be among the least preferred activities. These results provide vital information to tourism stakeholders who need to focus more on the preferred activities when revising their promotional campaigns to market tourism attractions both within and outside Tanzania.

Second, in this study, differences in preference for travel activities across two travel markets were examined. The findings indicate that tourists significantly differ in terms of preferences for visiting beaches, city attractions, going to a nightclub, buying traditional jewellery and traditional clothes and camping. In addition to those differences, tourist occupational status was reported to have a significant effect on activities such as visiting beaches, islands, and purchasing of traditional clothes. Therefore, destination managers should take into account that both employed and unemployed domestic tourists prefer visiting beaches and going to the islands than employed and unemployed international tourists. Also, domestic tourists have shown interest in other activities such as camping; thus, a special package which includes activities such as beaches, islands and camping should be introduced in order to attract more domestic tourists.

Third, even though there are abundant literatures on travel motivation, personality, travel activity and destination image, each individual construct has received considerable attention

from tourism researchers. The conceptual model and empirical studies regarding the causal relationships among these constructs are limited. It is believed that the findings of this study offer substantial support regarding to the applicability of the above constructs in relation to the understanding of tourist behaviour and preferences. The finding of this study offers tenable evidence that the proposed structural model in Figure 3.1 which was designed to test the causal relationships between travel motivation, personality, and travel activities is somehow acceptable. The summary of the result indicates that 15.4% and 24.4% of the total variance in sightseeing activities was explained by travel motivations such as stimulus avoidance, social and intellectual and destination image for local and international travel market respectively. Furthermore, 7.6% and 4.8% of the total variance in the outdoor activities was explained by travel motivations such as social travel motivation and destination image for local and international travel market respectively. Additionally, 3.2% and 1% of the total variance in entertainment activities was explained by social travel motivation and destination image for local and international travel market respectively. While 6.6% and 2.3% of the total variance in the shopping activities was explained by neurotic personality and closed to new experience personality and destination image for the local and international travel market respectively.

Fourth, although destination image was tested to see its role in mediating the above relationships, this factor was statistically proved not to be a significant factor in mediating the above relationships. However, this factor was found to have an influence on sightseeing activities for local travel market and shopping for the international travel market. Therefore, it is better to acknowledge the role that destination image plays in influencing travel activities. Tourism destination managers must find a way to make sure that the image of

beach, islands and city attractions, and shopping areas are not tarnished, this way more tourists will be motivated to participate in those activities.

Fifth, although travel activity is an important concept, few studies have been done to examine it in a broader context. So far, the existing studies have focused more on examining specific travel activity to specific travellers without addressing the possible factors that may influence the preference of travel activities. The focus of the current study has gone beyond the existing studies by combining the effects of the selected demographics and psychographics on travel activities. Therefore, destination managers can use the findings of this study to segment tourists based on their travel motivations, personality traits, and demographic factors.

Based on the overall findings, one may conclude that in order to have a successful tourism development, a more thorough understanding of tourists' activity preferences should be made. Key players in the tourism industry should have enough knowledge on the differences of activity preference among tourists so that they will be in a better position to offer what is needed by their customers.

Although the findings of this study are not longitudinal, it is expected that the information generated and the implications of the study may be of a vital help to tourism stakeholders. The information might also help policy makers and destination managers to develop more competitive strategies to help Tanzania to compete more successfully in the world tourism business.

Furthermore, the output of the study can be employed to segment travel activities based on tourist demographic, personality, and travel motivations. These factors are important to service providers to understand individual profiles. If they are used wisely, such information can offer details beyond just identifying someone's biography. For example, beach tourism

and traditional clothes could be promoted to attract more domestic tourists irrespective of their employment status and promotions to market island tourism could be positioned to attract more employed local and unemployed international tourists. Additionally, sightseeing activities should be targeted to escapees and those who travel for social as well as intellectual reasons; outdoor activities should be promoted to those who have desires to compete in adventure life. Furthermore, shopping activities should be targeted to attract tourists who are closed minded.

8.4 Limitations and Future Research

The findings presented in this study should be interpreted while bearing in mind the following limitations encountered by the researcher:

First, the data collection was done between January and May which is the low season. Thus, the findings of this study are limited to this particular period. Therefore, the tourists who travel in different seasons, for instance, high peak season might have different opinions regarding their preference for travel activities. In tourism, seasonality limits the generalisation of the study findings, and should always be taken into consideration in the interpretation stage. Future studies should conduct a similar study in different seasons to overcome this limitation. The obtained results can then be compared to identify similarities and differences between them. Also, the generated findings can be used to validate the findings of this study.

In addition, the population for this study covers all tourists who travelled to Northern tourist circuit and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba for leisure. Thus, the study findings are limited to this population and to the named geographical areas only. Therefore, the results from the study may not be generalized beyond the selected population. This geographically limited survey may produce different results and conclusions in terms of the magnitude and the

strength of relationships among the constructs examined in this study. Tourists who visited other circuits (Southern circuit) may have different preferences regarding travel activities. Replication of similar studies in other tourist circuits should be done to see whether similar findings could be generated.

Third, the personality items for this study were measured using two items. In multivariate technique such as SEM, it is advised to use a minimum of three items (Chin, 1998). The construct with less than three indicators may cause a model identification problem (Hair *et al.*, 2010). The use of a multiple-item measurement scale in future studies may enhance the interpretability and prediction of the effect of personality on travel activities.

Due to time limitation, the effect of tourist occupations was measured using two groups, namely employed and unemployed; therefore, future studies should focus on examining the effect of different tourist's occupation on travel activities as this will offer more details as to which occupation status influences which travel activity.

Fifth, the relationship between travel motivation and personality were examined as antecedents to a preference for travel activities. There can be additional factors influencing travel activities. Future studies are advised to investigate additional antecedents of travel activities. This may lead to the uncovering of omissions and misrepresentation of the relationships examined in the current study and further refines the conceptual framework. Further, the relationship between travel motivation, personality, and travel activities were examined using SEM. Although SEM is known to be one of the powerful techniques in measuring the casual relations among latent and observed variables, future studies should examine the similar relationship using other technique such as multiple linear regressions, or path analysis to see if the similar finding can be generated. The results could then be compared and the implications of the study can be interpreted.

Seventh, although this study has contributed to the literature on travel activity and has brought light to the practical level, the focus was only on two psychographic factors which mean travel motivation and personality and three demographic factors, namely occupation, marital status and family. These factors were selected based on the fact that there are limited studies examining the links between them and travel activities. Therefore, future studies need to examine the effects of other psychographic factors such as values, expectations, attitude and lifestyle to see whether they have any significant effect on the preference for travel activities. Also, the influence of other demographic factors such as income, sex, age, and gender could be employed to assess their role in influencing travel activities. The findings generated can be used to validate the findings of results this study.

Eighth, the differences in preference for travel activities were tested across local and international tourists. The results have indicated that the two groups differ significantly in their preferences for various activities. Therefore, it would be inadvisable to treat them as belonging to a homogeneous market segment. Future studies should thus examine the differences within each group. The key tourism stakeholders can use such information to develop specific promotional campaigns to satisfy the needs of each niche separately.

Ninth, this study employed eleven travel activities in the structural model. Therefore, future studies should include more travel activities such as scuba diving, beach sports activities, boat cruising, visiting the local community and historical activities since these activities were reported to be one among the preferred travel activities by tourists.

Last, data collected from the current study was not longitudinal. As such, interpretation of the cause and effect relationships revealed herein should be with caution. Other studies should be done using longitudinal data to more precisely measure the change in time and strength of the

causality among relationships. In short, the new study should examine the changes in the constructs by tracking tourists' preferences from one vacation to the other.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire for MNRT and TTB Experts

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to understand the preference for travel activities among tourists and to examine the factors affecting their preferences. Understanding these questions will be advantageous due to the fact that there is limited information regarding this subject matter in Tanzania. You are kindly required to answer all the questions to the best of your knowledge. Please note that all responses are confidential and only be used for academic purposes. Your participation and cooperation are highly needed for the success of this study.

Q1. Please identify the top 10 most popular travel activities e.g., sightseeing, shopping, dining, mountain climbing etc. that you think?

- a) International tourists e.g., tourists from Switzerland would prefer mountain climbing. Can you give more examples of say British, American, Italy etc. and their distinctive and known preferences?

- b) Domestic tourists prefer to participate when visiting various tourist attractions within the country? Give examples of each activity.

Q2 (a). Rank the following travel activities in a 7 point scale, 7(the most preferred activity), 6 (moderately preferred), 5 (little preferred), 4 (neutral), 3 (little unpreferred), 2 (moderately un-preferred), 1(least preferred) to indicate your own views regarding travel activities preferred by international tourists.

Travel Activities	RatingsRankings						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting islands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting city attractions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to casino	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to a nightclub	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional jewelries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying of carving products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Travel Activities	RatingsRankings						
Mountain climbing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Camping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Others, if not indicated in the list above_____

2(b). Rank the following travel activities in a 7 point scale, 7(the most preferred activity), 6 (moderately preferred), 5 (little preferred), 4 (neutral), 3 (little unpreferred), 2 (moderately un-preferred), 1(least preferred) to indicate your own views regarding travel activities preferred by Domestic tourists.

Travel activities	Rankings						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting islands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to casino	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to a nightclub	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional jewelries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying of carving products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mountain climbing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Camping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Others, if not indicated in the list above_____

Q3. In your own opinion, what do you think the two travel markets above prefer less some of the activities that you have indicated above? Please give reasons for each travel market separately_____

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study!!!

Appendix 2 Tourist survey

The purpose of this study is to understand the preference for travel activities among tourists and to determine the possible factors that influence their preferences. Understanding these questions will be advantageous due to the fact that there is limited information on this subject matter in the context of Tanzania. You are kindly required to answer all the questions to the best of your knowledge and return the completed questionnaire to the researcher. Please, note that all responses are confidential and will only be used for academic purposes. Your confidentiality is needed for the success of this study. This survey intends to examine views to only visitors who are 18 years old and above.

This questionnaire is divided into four parts. Part A covers general visitor profiles (demographics) and Part B includes information on motivation and personality to be followed by information regarding destination image and the last part involves information on the customer preference of tourism activities.

Please tick where appropriate (✓)

A: CUSTOMER PROFILE

1. Age 18-30 ☐ 31-43 ☐ 44-56 ☐ 57+ ☐

2. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

3. Marital status

Single ☐ Married ☐

4. Highest level of education (*tick one only*)

Primary ☐ High school ☐ certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ University graduates ☐

5. Occupation

Employed ☐ Unemployed ☐

6. Family size (i.e. terms of number of children), please choose one category

Large (3 and above) ☐ Small (0-2) ☐

7. Nationality, Please specify.....

8. Please specify your country of origin.....

9. Household monthly income

Less than U\$ 600 ☐ U\$ 601- 2999 ☐ U\$ 3000- 4999 ☐ U\$ 5000- 6999 ☐ U\$ 7000 and above ☐

B (i) Personality part

10. The following are several personality attributes that may or may not apply to you. Please circle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

Personality dimensions items							
1 (disagree strongly), 2 (disagree moderately), 3(disagree a little), 4(neither agree nor disagree), 5(agree a little), 6 (agree moderately), 7(agree strongly).							
I see myself as someone who is.....							
anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gets upset easily	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Conventional e.g. being a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Uncreative e.g. prefers routine works	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B (ii) Travel motivation part

12. Rank the following statements according to the importance of your travel motivation. Please circle only one option in the appropriate space provided for each statement.

Travel motivation items							
1 (disagree strongly), 2 (disagree moderately), 3(disagree a little), 4(neither agree nor disagree), 5(agree a little), 6 (agree moderately), 7(agree strongly).							
I travel to various tourist attractions in Tanzania because I wish ...							
To learn about things around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To satisfy my curiosity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To explore new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To learn about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To expand my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To discover new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To use my imagination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To build friendships with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To interact with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop close friendships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To meet new and different people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To reveal my thoughts, feelings, or physical skills to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be socially competent and skillful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To gain a feeling of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To gain other's respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To challenge my abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be good in doing them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To improve my skill and ability in doing them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop physical skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To keep in shape physically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To use my physical abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop physical fitness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To slow down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Because I sometimes like to be alone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To relax physically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To relax mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Travel motivation items

1 (disagree strongly), 2 (disagree moderately), 3(disagree a little), 4(neither agree nor disagree), 5(agree a little), 6 (agree moderately), 7(agree strongly).

I travel to various tourist attractions in Tanzania because I wish ...

To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To rest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To relieve stress and tension	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To un-structure my time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C: Information about preference of tourism activities

13(a). Rank the following list of tourism activities according to your preference. Please circle only one option in the space provided for each statement

Rank for Preference of travel activities

1(The least preferred activity) 2 (moderately un- preferred activity) 3(little un-preferred activity) 4 (Neutral) 5 (little-preferred activity) (6) moderately preferred activity 7 (The most preferred activity)

When I travel to various tourist attractions, I prefer to participate in

Visiting beaches	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting islands	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Visiting attractions in cities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to casino	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going to a nightclub	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional clothes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying traditional jewelries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Buying of carving products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mountain climbing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hunting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Camping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Others, please
specify.....

13(b). Please state the reason(s) for the least preferred activities you have indicated
above.....
.....
.....

D: Destination image

14. Each of the following questions contains two contrary statements regarding your emotions to evaluate Tanzania as a vacation destination. The scale between these statements ranges from negative emotions to positive, the higher the value the more positive emotions .E.g. if you circle 4 in a first statement, it implies that your feelings/emotions regarding Tanzania as a vacation destination are neither arousing nor sleepy.

I feel that the image of Tanzania as tourist destination 1 (strong negative emotion), 2 (negative emotion), 3(somehow negative emotions), 4 (neutral), 5 (somehow positive emotion), 6(positive emotions), 7(strong positive emotions)								
I feel Tanzania is dull because it has little to offer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A visit to Tanzania is stimulating because of its interesting culture, history etc.
Tanzania offers unpleasant destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Tanzania offers a pleasant destination
A trip to Tanzania is boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A trip to Tanzania is exciting
A visit to Tanzania is distressing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A visit to Tanzania is relaxing

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study, wish you a nice time!!!

Appendix 3: Descriptive Results for Assessing Missing Data

	Age	Gender	M/status	Education	Occupation	F/size	Income	Work	Nationality
N Valid	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	Country	O/Activities	NR1	NR2	CL1	CL2	IL3	IL4	IL8
N Valid	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	SO2	SO6	S07	MC1	MC	MC8	SA3	SA4	SA6	SA7	SA8
	4										
N Valid	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	ST1	ST2	ST3	ET1	ET2	SP1	SP2	SP3	OD	OD	OD3
									1	2	
N Valid	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	AI1	AI2	AI3	AI4
N Valid	431	431	431	431
Missing	0	0	0	0

Appendix 4 Frequency Table: Expert rankings on Tourist Preference for Travel Activities

Activity	Ranking	MNRT Experts		TTB Experts	
		International (%)	Local (%)	International (%)	Local (%)
Beach	4	20	-	40	20
	5	20	-	20	-
	6	40	20	20	40
	7	20	80	20	40
Islands	2	20	-	-	-
	4	40	40	40	20
	5	40	40	20	-
	6	-	-	20	40
	7	-	20	20	40
C/Attractions	2	20	-	-	-
	3	-	20	-	-
	4	40	20	40	20
	5	40	20	20	-
	6	-	20	20	40
	7	-	20	20	40
Casino	1	40	20	-	-
	2	-	20	-	-
	3	20	20	-	-
	4	-	20	40	20
	5	40	-	20	-
	6	-	-	20	40
	7	-	-	20	40
Nightclub	1	20	-	-	-
	3	-	-	-	-
	4	20	40	40	20
	5	20	20	20	-
	6	20	20	20	40
	7	-	20	20	40
T/Clothes	1	-	20	-	-
	2	-	20	-	-
	3	-	-	-	-
	4	20	40	40	20
	5	40	-	20	-
	6	40	-	20	40
	7	-	-	20	40
Jewelries	1	20	-	-	-
	4	-	-	40	20
	5	20	80	20	-
	6	20	20	20	40
	7	40	-	20	40
Carvings	1	-	20	-	-
	4	-	60	40	20
	5	20	20	20	-
	6	20	-	20	40
	7	60	-	20	40
Mt. Climbing	3	-	40	-	-
	4	-	40	40	20
	5	20	20	20	-
	6	40	-	20	40
	7	40	-	20	40
Hunting	1	-	20	-	-
	2	-	20	-	-

Activity	Ranking	MNRT Experts		TTB Experts	
		International (%)	Local (%)	International (%)	Local (%)
	4	-	40	40	20
	5	20	-	20	-
	6	60	-	20	40
	7	20	40	20	40
camping	1	-	20	-	-
	3	-	60	-	-
	4	20	-	40	20
	5	-	20	20	-
	6	80	-	20	40
	7	-	-	20	40

Appendix 5: Descriptive statistics on preference for travel activities

Country of origin		Country of origin * Visiting beaches Cross tabulation							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
	Argentina	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Australia	0	1	0	1	5	5	3	15
	Austria	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Belgium	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	3
	Benin	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Brazil	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Cambodia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Canada	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
	Chile	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
	China	1	2	0	3	0	2	2	10
	Comoro	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Denmark	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	DRC	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Finland	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	France	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	6
	Germany	0	1	1	1	1	4	2	10
	India	1	1	1	0	3	4	3	13
	Italy	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Kenya	1	0	0	3	5	1	5	15
	Korea	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Malawi	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
	Mexico	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mozambique	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Namibia	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Netherlands	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	0	0	1	1	2	3	0	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Norway	1	0	0	3	0	0	2	6
	Oman	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Pakistan	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	4
	Palestine	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Poland	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	South Africa	1	0	0	0	3	5	11	20
	Spain	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Srilanka	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
	Sweden	0	0	1	1	1	3	2	8
	Switzerland	0	0	2	1	0	2	0	5
	Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Tanzania	0	9	10	29	47	58	77	230
	Uganda	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	4
	UK	1	2	0	1	3	1	7	15
	USA	0	0	4	1	1	4	4	14
	Zimbabwe	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total		10	21	26	53	80	100	141	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Visiting islands Cross tabulation							Total
		LSP	MP	LP	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Argentina		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Australia		0	1	0	2	4	5	3	15
Austria		0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Bangladesh		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Belgium		0	0	0	0	2	0	1	3
Benin		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Brazil		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Cambodia		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Canada		1	0	0	0	0	1	1	3
Chile		0	1	0	0	0	1	1	3
China		2	0	2	4	0	2	0	10
Comoro		0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Denmark		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
DRC		0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Finland		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
France		0	0	2	1	0	2	1	6
Germany		1	1	0	1	1	4	2	10
India		2	0	0	1	3	4	3	13
Italy		0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
Japan		0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Kenya		1	1	1	2	2	3	5	15
Korea		0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
Malawi		1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
Mexico		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Mozambique		0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Namibia		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Netherlands		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
New Zealand		1	0	1	1	0	3	1	7
Nigeria		0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Norway		0	1	0	2	1	1	1	6
Oman		0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Pakistan		0	0	0	1	0	1	2	4
Palestine		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Phillipines		0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Poland		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Rwanda		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
South Africa		1	1	0	0	2	4	12	20
Spain		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Srilanka		0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Sweden		0	0	0	1	3	3	1	8
Switzerland		0	0	2	0	1	2	0	5
Taiwan		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Tanzania		14	9	10	28	45	59	65	230
Uganda		1	1	0	1	1	0	0	4
UK		1	0	0	1	5	0	8	15
USA		1	1	2	1	1	3	5	14
Zimbabwe		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total		28	19	21	51	76	108	128	431

Country of origin	Country of origin * Visiting city attractions Cross tabulation							Total
	LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Argentina	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Australia	0	1	0	3	4	5	2	15
Austria	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Belgium	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	3
Benin	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Brazil	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Cambodia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Canada	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	3
Chile	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	3
China	1	0	1	2	2	3	1	10
Comoro	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
Denmark	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
DRC	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
Finland	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
France	1	1	1	0	1	2	0	6
Germany	0	0	0	2	3	2	3	10
India	2	1	1	1	2	3	3	13
Italy	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
Japan	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
Kenya	2	2	0	1	3	2	5	15
Korea	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
Malawi	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
Mexico	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Mozambique	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Namibia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Netherlands	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
New Zealand	1	0	1	2	3	0	0	7
Nigeria	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
Norway	1	0	0	2	2	0	1	6
Oman	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
Pakistan	0	0	1	0	0	1	2	4
Palestine	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Phillipines	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Poland	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
South Africa	0	1	1	1	10	2	5	20
Spain	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Srilanka	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Sweden	0	0	2	1	3	1	1	8
Switzerland	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	5
Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Tanzania	0	7	5	28	38	72	80	230
Uganda	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	4
UK	2	1	1	5	3	0	3	15
USA	0	2	3	1	3	3	2	14
Zimbabwe	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total	15	22	20	62	86	106	120	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Buying traditional clothes Cross tabulation						Total	
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Argentina		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Australia		3	5	1	2	2	1	1	15
Austria		0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Bangladesh		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Belgium		1	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
Benin		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Brazil		0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Cambodia		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Canada		1	0	1	0	0	0	1	3
Chile		1	0	0	1	1	0	0	3
China		4	2	1	0	2	0	1	10
Comoro		0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Denmark		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
DRC		0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
Finland		0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
France		2	1	1	1	1	0	0	6
Germany		3	0	0	2	0	1	4	10
India		4	2	1	2	3	0	1	13
Italy		2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Japan		0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Kenya		1	4	2	3	1	2	2	15
Korea		0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Malawi		0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2
Mexico		0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Mozambique		0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
Namibia		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Netherlands		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
New Zealand		3	0	1	0	1	1	1	7
Nigeria		0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Norway		1	1	1	2	1	0	0	6
Oman		0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Pakistan		0	1	1	2	0	0	0	4
Palestine		0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Phillipines		0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Poland		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Rwanda		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
South Africa		6	4	3	2	0	1	4	20
Spain		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Srilanka		0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
Sweden		2	4	0	0	1	1	0	8
Switzerland		3	0	2	0	0	0	0	5
Taiwan		0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Tanzania		24	16	28	34	37	38	53	230
Uganda		0	2	2	0	0	0	0	4
UK		3	3	1	1	6	1	0	15
USA		3	3	2	2	0	2	2	14
Zimbabwe		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total		70	55	54	60	63	54	75	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Buying traditional jewelry Cross tabulation							Total
		LSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
	Argentina	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Australia	4	3	2	2	1	1	2	15
	Austria	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Bangladesh	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Belgium	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	3
	Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Brazil	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Cambodia	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Canada	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	3
	Chile	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
	China	4	3	0	0	2	1	0	10
	Comoro	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Denmark	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	DRC	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
	Finland	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	France	3	1	0	1	0	0	1	6
	Germany	6	1	0	1	0	0	2	10
	India	4	3	1	4	0	0	1	13
	Italy	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
	Kenya	3	2	2	3	1	2	2	15
	Korea	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
	Malawi	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Mexico	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Mozambique	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
	Namibia	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Netherlands	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	4	1	0	0	0	1	1	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Norway	2	0	1	3	0	0	0	6
	Oman	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
	Pakistan	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	4
	Palestine	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Poland	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	South Africa	4	3	0	3	3	1	6	20
	Spain	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Srilanka	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2
	Sweden	5	1	0	1	1	0	0	8
	Switzerland	3	0	1	1	0	0	0	5
	Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Tanzania	36	23	22	39	28	35	47	230
	Uganda	0	2	1	0	0	0	1	4
	UK	4	1	2	3	1	3	1	15
	USA	3	3	0	4	1	1	2	14
	Zimbabwe	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total		97	53	38	75	44	51	73	431

Country of origin	Country of origin * Buying of carving products Cross tabulation							Total
	TSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Argentina	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Australia	3	3	1	2	3	0	3	15
Austria	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Belgium	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	3
Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Brazil	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Cambodia	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Canada	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	3
Chile	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	3
China	3	1	2	0	0	2	2	10
Comoro	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Denmark	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
DRC	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Finland	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
France	1	0	1	1	1	2	0	6
Germany	4	1	1	2	0	1	1	10
India	4	1	4	0	1	1	2	13
Italy	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
Japan	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
Kenya	4	3	2	1	2	1	2	15
Korea	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
Malawi	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
Mexico	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Mozambique	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
Namibia	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Netherlands	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
New Zealand	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	7
Nigeria	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
Norway	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	6
Oman	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Pakistan	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	4
Palestine	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Phillipines	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Poland	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
South Africa	4	3	2	4	2	3	2	20
Spain	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Srilanka	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2
Sweden	1	3	1	1	2	0	0	8
Switzerland	1	1	0	2	0	0	1	5
Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Tanzania	43	12	21	41	35	38	40	230
Uganda	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	4
UK	2	1	2	2	3	1	4	15
USA	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	14
Zimbabwe	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total	84	38	49	75	60	58	67	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Going to casino Cross tabulation						Total
		TSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	
	Argentina	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Australia	10	3	0	0	2	0	15
	Austria	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Belgium	1	1	0	0	1	0	3
	Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Brazil	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Cambodia	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Canada	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Chile	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
	China	4	0	1	1	2	2	10
	Comoro	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Denmark	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	DRC	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Finland	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	France	5	1	0	0	0	0	6
	Germany	8	0	1	0	1	0	10
	India	7	0	3	0	2	1	13
	Italy	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Kenya	8	2	0	0	4	1	15
	Korea	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Malawi	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Mexico	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mozambique	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Namibia	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Netherlands	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	7	0	0	0	0	0	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Norway	4	0	0	2	0	0	6
	Oman	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Pakistan	3	1	0	0	0	0	4
	Palestine	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Poland	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	South Africa	10	4	1	1	4	0	20
	Spain	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Srilanka	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Sweden	6	1	0	0	1	0	8
	Switzerland	3	1	1	0	0	0	5
	Taiwan	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Tanzania	129	14	30	21	15	21	230
	Uganda	3	1	0	0	0	0	4
	UK	8	1	2	2	2	0	15
	USA	9	2	0	2	1	0	14
	Zimbabwe	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total		257	34	40	31	41	28	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Going to nightclub Cross tabulation							Total
		TSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
	Argentina	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Australia	8	5	0	0	1	1	0	15
	Austria	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Belgium	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	3
	Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Brazil	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Cambodia	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Canada	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
	Chile	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
	China	4	1	0	1	3	1	0	10
	Comoro	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Denmark	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	DRC	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Finland	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	France	5	1	0	0	0	0	0	6
	Germany	8	1	0	0	1	0	0	10
	India	8	1	1	0	2	1	0	13
	Italy	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Kenya	6	4	0	0	4	1	0	15
	Korea	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Malawi	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Mexico	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Mozambique	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Namibia	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Netherlands	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	6	0	1	0	0	0	0	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
	Norway	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	6
	Oman	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
	Pakistan	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
	Palestine	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
	Poland	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	South Africa	10	4	2	1	3	0	0	20
	Spain	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Srilanka	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Sweden	2	2	3	0	1	0	0	8
	Switzerland	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	5
	Taiwan	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Tanzania	125	16	22	20	20	14	13	230
	Uganda	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	4
	UK	9	1	1	2	2	0	0	15
	USA	8	4	0	1	0	1	0	14
	Zimbabwe	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total		236	53	34	29	46	20	13	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Mountain climbing Cross tabulation							Total
		TP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
	Argentina	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Australia	4	2	1	0	2	5	1	15
	Austria	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Belgium	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	3
	Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Brazil	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Cambodia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Canada	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	3
	Chile	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
	China	4	0	2	1	1	1	1	10
	Comoro	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Denmark	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	DRC	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Finland	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	France	1	2	0	1	0	0	2	6
	Germany	3	2	1	1	0	0	3	10
	India	5	1	1	3	2	0	1	13
	Italy	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
	Kenya	4	3	2	1	0	1	4	15
	Korea	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Malawi	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
	Mexico	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Mozambique	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Namibia	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Netherlands	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	4	0	0	2	0	1	0	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Norway	1	1	0	3	1	0	0	6
	Oman	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
	Pakistan	0	0	0	2	0	1	1	4
	Palestine	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Poland	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	South Africa	7	2	1	1	5	3	1	20
	Spain	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Srilanka	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Sweden	3	1	1	0	1	1	1	8
	Switzerland	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	5
	Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Tanzania	63	18	27	29	32	21	40	230
	Uganda	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	4
	UK	5	3	0	2	0	2	3	15
	USA	2	2	2	3	1	1	3	14
	Zimbabwe	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total		121	42	41	57	48	48	74	431

Country of origin		Country of origin * Hunting Cross tabulation							Total
		TP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
	Argentina	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Australia	6	1	0	0	4	4	0	15
	Austria	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Belgium	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	3
	Benin	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Brazil	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Cambodia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
	Canada	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	3
	Chile	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	3
	China	4	1	1	1	2	1	0	10
	Comoro	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Denmark	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	DRC	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Finland	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	France	3	0	0	1	1	1	0	6
	Germany	5	1	0	1	1	1	1	10
	India	6	1	0	3	0	2	1	13
	Italy	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
	Japan	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Kenya	6	3	0	1	1	1	3	15
	Korea	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
	Malawi	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	2
	Mexico	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Mozambique	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
	Namibia	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Netherlands	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	New Zealand	4	0	0	2	1	0	0	7
	Nigeria	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Norway	3	0	0	2	1	0	0	6
	Oman	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
	Pakistan	0	0	0	2	1	1	0	4
	Palestine	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Phillipines	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
	Poland	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	Rwanda	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	South Africa	8	3	0	0	8	0	1	20
	Spain	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
	Srilanka	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
	Sweden	4	1	0	0	2	1	0	8
	Switzerland	2	0	0	0	2	1	0	5
	Taiwan	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Tanzania	107	13	18	33	21	20	18	230
	Uganda	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	4
	UK	6	2	1	1	0	2	3	15
	USA	4	1	0	4	2	2	1	14
	Zimbabwe	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total		185	31	21	58	57	45	34	431

Country of origin	Country of origin * Camping Cross tabulation							Total
	TSP	MU	LU	N	LP	MP	TMP	
Argentina	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Australia	5	1	3	2	3	0	1	15
Austria	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Bangladesh	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Belgium	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	3
Benin	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Brazil	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Cambodia	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Canada	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	3
Chile	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	3
China	3	0	2	1	2	1	1	10
Comoro	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Denmark	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
DRC	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Finland	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
France	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	6
Germany	3	1	2	0	2	1	1	10
India	4	1	2	2	1	1	2	13
Italy	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
Japan	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
Kenya	4	1	1	0	4	2	3	15
Korea	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Malawi	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
Mexico	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Mozambique	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	2
Namibia	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Netherlands	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
New Zealand	1	3	0	1	1	1	0	7
Nigeria	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2
Norway	2	0	0	3	1	0	0	6
Oman	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Pakistan	1	1	0	2	0	0	0	4
Palestine	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Phillipines	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Poland	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Rwanda	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
South Africa	8	3	3	1	1	1	3	20
Spain	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Srilanka	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Sweden	2	3	0	1	1	1	0	8
Switzerland	2	0	1	2	0	0	0	5
Taiwan	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Tanzania	55	12	20	26	35	33	49	230
Uganda	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	4
UK	5	2	1	2	0	2	3	15
USA	2	0	2	1	4	3	2	14
Zimbabwe	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Total	111	34	40	54	62	58	72	431

Note: LSP= Least Preferred, MU = Moderately Unpreferred, LU = Little Unpreferred, N = Neutral, LP = Little Preferred, MP = Moderately Preferred, TMP = The Most Preferred.

Appendix 6 Univariate ANOVA Results

Source	D/variable	Mean square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Corrected Model	V/beaches	3.096	1.215	.293	.020	.523
	V/islands	5.114	1.646	.121	.027	.680
	V/city attractions	2.551	.967	.455	.016	.420
	Casino	4.210	1.492	.168	.024	.628
	Nightclubs	3.306	1.016	.419	.017	.440
	Traditional clothes	11.261	2.679	.010	.042	.903
	Traditional jewelries	10.597	2.308	.026	.037	.846
	Carving products	7.076	1.661	.117	.027	.685
	Mountain climbing	9.110	1.830	.080	.029	.736
	Hunting	5.281	1.137	.339	.018	.491
	Camping	5.441	1.110	.356	.018	.480
Intercept	V/beaches	11736.194	4604.851	.000	.916	4604.851
	V/islands	10950.827	3525.102	.000	.893	3525.102
	V/city attractions	11339.023	4298.497	.000	.910	4298.497
	Casino	1968.973	697.739	.000	.623	697.739
	Nightclubs	2224.564	683.350	.000	.618	683.350
	Traditional clothes	6777.332	1612.334	.000	.792	1612.334
	Traditional jewelries	5929.584	1291.261	.000	.753	1291.261
	Carving products	6505.995	1526.816	.000	.783	1526.816
	Mountain climbing	5633.486	1131.677	.000	.728	1131.677
	Hunting	3934.776	847.053	.000	.667	847.053
	Camping	6058.699	1235.819	.000	.745	1235.819
MS	V/beaches	2.142	.840	.360	.002	.150
	V/islands	.029	.009	.923	.000	.051
	V/city attractions	3.117	1.181	.278	.003	.192
	Casino	.570	.202	.653	.000	.073
	Nightclubs	.001	.000	.985	.000	.050
	Traditional clothes	2.619	.623	.430	.001	.124
	Traditional jewelries	11.056	2.408	.121	.006	.340
	Carving products	1.158	.272	.602	.001	.082
	Mountain climbing	29.701	5.966	.015	.014	.683
	Hunting	8.738	1.881	.171	.004	.278
	Camping	20.686	4.219	.041	.010	.536
FS	V/beaches	4.231	1.660	.004	.004	.251
	V/islands	13.122	4.224	.010	.010	.536
	V/city attractions	.042	.016	.000	.000	.052
	Casino	1.312	.465	.001	.001	.104
	Nightclubs	.515	.158	.000	.000	.068
	Traditional clothes	6.460	1.537	.004	.004	.236
	Traditional jewelries	23.260	5.065	.012	.012	.612
	Carving products	17.717	4.158	.010	.010	.530
	Mountain climbing	.920	.185	.000	.000	.071
	Hunting	.333	.072	.000	.000	.058
	Camping	2.018	.412	.001	.001	.098
OC	V/beaches	13.143	5.157	.024	.012	.620
	V/islands	17.088	5.501	.019	.013	.648
	V/city attractions	.318	.120	.729	.000	.064
	Casino	.016	.006	.939	.000	.051
	Nightclubs	.737	.227	.634	.001	.076
	Traditional clothes	28.086	6.682	.010	.016	.732

Source	D/variable	Mean square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
	Traditional jewelries	1.943	.423	.516	.001	.099
	Carving products	5.751	1.350	.246	.003	.213
	Mountain climbing	1.302	.261	.609	.001	.080
	Hunting	.003	.001	.981	.000	.050
	Camping	14.068	2.869	.091	.007	.394
MS * FS	V/beaches	.005	.002	.966	.000	.050
	V/islands	1.553	.500	.480	.001	.109
	V/city attractions	5.515	2.091	.149	.005	.303
	Casino	4.006	1.419	.234	.003	.221
	Nightclubs	1.791	.550	.459	.001	.115
	Traditional clothes	2.824	.672	.413	.002	.129
	Traditional jewelries	5.276	1.149	.284	.003	.188
	Carving products	.369	.087	.769	.000	.060
	Mountain climbing	10.738	2.157	.143	.005	.311
	Hunting	6.516	1.403	.237	.003	.219
	Camping	.386	.079	.779	.000	.059
FS * OC	V/beaches	.023	.009	.925	.000	.051
	V/islands	4.803	1.546	.214	.004	.237
	V/city attractions	3.750	1.422	.234	.003	.221
	Casino	8.539	3.026	.083	.007	.411
	Nightclubs	7.969	2.448	.118	.006	.345
	Traditional clothes	13.433	3.196	.075	.007	.430
	Traditional jewelry	5.571	1.213	.271	.003	.196
	Carving products	8.733	2.049	.153	.005	.298
	Mountain climbing	.207	.042	.839	.000	.055
	Hunting	9.359	2.015	.157	.005	.294
	Camping	.307	.063	.802	.000	.057
MS * FS * OC	V/beaches	1.191	.467	.495	.001	.105
	V/islands	3.995	1.286	.257	.003	.205
	V/city attractions	6.991	2.650	.104	.006	.369
	Casino	12.737	4.514	.034	.011	.563
	Nightclubs	10.557	3.243	.072	.008	.435
	Traditional clothes	6.661	1.585	.209	.004	.241
	Traditional jewelry	24.451	5.325	.022	.012	.634
	Carving products	7.205	1.691	.194	.004	.254
	Mountain climbing	2.256	.453	.501	.001	.103
	Hunting	.001	.000	.991	.000	.050
	Camping	.189	.039	.844	.000	.054
a. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .003) ; i. R Squared = .029 (Adjusted R Squared = .013)						
b. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .010) ; j. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)						
c. R Squared = .016 (Adjusted R Squared = -.001) ; k. R Squared = .018 (Adjusted R Squared = .002)						
d. R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .008) l. Computed using alpha = .05						
e. R Squared = .017 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)						
f. R Squared = .042 (Adjusted R Squared = .027)						
g. R Squared = .037 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)						
h. R Squared = .027 (Adjusted R Squared = .011)						

Appendix 7 Approval letters from Tourism Authorities

Approval letters from tourism authorities

The United Republic of Tanzania

MINISTRY OF NATURAL RESOURCES AND TOURISM

Telephone: 255-022- 2864271
Fax: 255-022- 2864272
Cables: "UTALII"
E-mail: ps@mnrt.go.tz
In reply please quote



MPINGO HOUSE,
P.O. BOX 9372,
DAR ES SALAAM.

Ref. No. AB 315/552/01

15-01-2013

Nasra Shokat Kara,
P.O.Box 72668,
Dar es Salaam,
Tanzania.

Dear Nasra.

Re: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Thank you for your application seeking approval to a conduct study titled "the influence of demographics and psychographics on preference for travel activities in Tanzania".

Your application has been reviewed and accepted, therefore permission is hereby granted to you to conduct the study. Our tourism experts (Principal Tourist Officers) have agreed to take part in your study. We understand that you need full cooperation from us, let me assure you that we will provide any assistance necessary for the successful implementation of this study.

I would like to wish you success with your doctoral studies and look forward to the findings and recommendations of your research.

Sincerely yours,


DIRECTOR OF TOURISM
For: PERMANENT SECRETARY

Approval letter from Tanzania Tourist Board



The Land of Kilimanjaro, Zanzibar & the Serengeti

Nasra Shokat Kara,
P.O. BOX 72668,
Dar es Salaam,
Tanzania.
Dear Ms. Nasra,

18th January, 2013

Re: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Kindly refer to your letter dated 05th January, 2013 seeking permission to conduct research at Tanzania Tourist Board. Permission is hereby granted for you to conduct your study titled: *The influence of demographics and psychographics on preference for travel activities in Tanzania.*

The management team has reviewed your application and have decided to grant you the permission to collect data for your study. Furthermore, our tourism experts (Tourism information officers) have kindly and willingly agreed to participate in your study. The management will give you all the necessary support to successfully complete this study.

Kindly let us know when you plan to start data collection.

Yours sincerely,

Peter Mkumbo
Principal Marketing Officer
Tanzania Tourist Board

TANZANIA TOURIST BOARD
P. O. BOX 2485
DAR ES SALAAM

Tanzania Tourist Board
IPS Building, Third Floor, P.O. Box 2485, Dar es Salaam
Telephone: +255 22 2111244/ 5, Fax: +255 22 2116420
Email: md@tanzaniatourism.go.tz
Website: [http:// www.tanzaniatourism.go.tz](http://www.tanzaniatourism.go.tz)
All official correspondence should be addressed to the Managing Director

Approval letter from Mwalim Nyerere international airport

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA
MINISTRY OF TRANSPORT
TANZANIA AIRPORTS AUTHORITY

Telegrams: "WAGENT" TZ
Telephone: 2844212, 2844328, 2844371/2
E-mail: airportmanager@africaonline.co.tz
Fax: 2844373
In reply please quote:



JULIUS NYERERE INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT,
P.O. BOX 18032
DAR ES SALAAM.

Ref. NIA EA 26/461/01/57(B)

23rd January, 2014

Nasra Shokat Kara,
P.O.BOX 72668,
Dar es Salaam,
Tanzania.

Dear Nasra,

**RE: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT JULIUS NYERERE
INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT**

This is my understanding that student Nasra Shokat Kara from the University of Nottingham Malaysia campus will be conducting a research on the influence of demographics and psychographics on the preference for travel activities in Tanzania. Nasra has informed me of the study design as well as the targeted population. The management has agreed to support your study by allowing you to collect data regarding tourists' activity preferences. Be assured that we will provide any assistance necessary for you to get all the data for the success of your study. If you have any question, please do not hesitate to contact me.

I wish you all the best in your research project.

Sincerely,

P.F. Mkawe
For Director.
Julius Nyerere International Airport.

FOR DIRECTOR
JULIUS NYERERE INTERNATIONAL AIRPORT
DAR ES SALAAM